PROMINENT AMERICANS
OF SWISS ORIGIN

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Swiss-American Historical
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Prominent Americans of Swiss
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PROMINENT AMERICANS OF SWISS ORIGIN

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Historical Society

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SWISS-AMERICAN HISTORICAL SOCIETY

INTRODUCTION

IN publishing this volume of biographies, the Swiss-American Historical Society intends to meet the growing demand for a comprehensive account of the role which the Swiss element, especially its outstanding representatives, has played in the history of this country.

As early as 1889 an attempt was made to write the history of the Swiss in America, when Dr. Adelrich Steinach published, in German, his ''Geschichte und Leben der Schweizer Kolonien in den Vereinigten Staaten von Nordamerika.'' As the book concerned itself primarily with the location of the Swiss settlements and with the activity of the Swiss settlers in their own circles, merely alluding to those individuals who, in a wider sense, had distinguished themselves, it could serve only in a minor degree as a source of information from the American point of view.

Thereafter occasional obituaries appeared, but no comprehensive treatment of the subject was undertaken until a few years ago, when Mr. Bruno Buchmann, with a few collaborators, began to publish in ''Der Schweizer'' a series of biographical sketches on outstanding Americans of Swiss origin.

The widespread interest thus awakened, brought many inquiries for further information. It became apparent that the necessary data could best be obtained with the cooperation of persons in different parts of the United States and in Switzerland and Mr. Buchmann suggested the forming of an organization along those lines. As a result, the Swiss-American Historical Society was founded in Chicago on July 4, 1927, for the purpose of collecting, preserving and disseminating historical and biographical information about Swiss settlers in the United States, and to satisfy a widely expressed desire to have the collected material published in book form. In view of the extent of the material available, it was decided to confine this first volume, which is to be one of a series, to the biographies of the more prominent subjects not alive today.

The classification adopted was devised on the basis of the natural evolution of a body politic in a new country reared on virgin soil. Thus the explorers and pioneers, who searched the territory for suitable settlements and prepared it for colonization come first. Then follow the preachers and ecclesiastics, who cared for the spiritual well-being of the community and maintained the moral stamina among its members. Thereafter, in successive order, follow the soldiers, who defended the settlements, and secured further territory for expansion; the statesmen, who provided laws and managed the household of the colony and state; the physicians, who cared for the physical health of its people; and the artisans, merchants and manufacturers, who provided the varied needs of the advanced society and procured the material means for its further development. Finally, after the state was well established and its daily necessities provided for, came the educators, scientists, inventors, writers and artists to endow the coming generation with schooling, to devise new and improved methods of production and communication, to keep the people informed of the daily events of the world, to develop the ethical and esthetic sense, and to satisfy the varied wants of the modern life.

In order better to understand the basic characteristics of the Swiss, it is necessary to refer briefly to the conditions which prevailed in their homeland. The constant struggle with the severe elements of nature in their mountains and valleys provided the Swiss with a constitution fitted to endure hardships, and inured them to a life of simplicity and frugality; so that they were prepared to confront hard facts with courage and perseverance. Their fervent love of country and instinct for liberty led to their early political independence, which was actually established, when the league between Uri, Schwyz and Nidwald against the oppression of the Hapsburgs was formed in August, 1291. This league formed the nucleus of the present Swiss confederation. True to the motto: ''Montani semper liberi,'' the Swiss ever since have heroically defended and preserved their freedom. With this political heritage the Swiss emigrants came to the New World to pursue their constructive activities in this adolescent nation, whose democratic ideas and ideals conformed so well to their own. In harmony with the policy of neutrality which Switzerland maintained since 1515, the year which signifies the Great Divide in its history (it was after the crushing defeat at Marignano in 1515, that the Swiss resolved to depart from their aggressive course of political conduct, to pursue, instead, a policy of inner consolidation and permanent neutrality toward their neighbors), its emigrants came to America not to establish a national colony, but to accept the hospitality and become loyal citizens of their adopted country.

The economic, cultural and scientific contributions, which the Swiss have made to the upbuilding of America, are indeed far greater than is commonly realized. As Switzerland has no national language of its own, but is linguistically divided into German, French, Italian and Romansh speaking sections (in several valleys of the canton of Grisons still lingers a quaint old language—the Rhaeto-Romansh—which is a living remembrance of the old Roman culture), the Swiss in America were to some extent absorbed by the corresponding racial groups and, in a popular sense, according to their mother tongue, were known here as Germans, Frenchmen or Italians. This circumstance is partly responsible for the lack of more general knowledge of the activity which the Swiss displayed in America—information which this volume, in part at least, undertakes to furnish.

The news of a vast continent beyond the Atlantic had reached Switzerland soon after its discovery, and as early as 1525, a group of Swiss citizens addressed a petition to their government soliciting the right to emigrate to this new world. Whether or not this plan was ever carried out, has not been ascertained so far. The first historical evidence of a Swiss in the territory now known as the United States, dates back to 1562, when Diebold von Erlach, a mercenary soldier (or officer, judging from his noble title) in the service of Spain, died in Florida. During the pre-revolutionary period a number of Swiss came to these shores as mercenaries, but these instances are comparatively few. The great majority emigrated for the purpose of finding a new home for themselves and their descendants. Among the earliest settlers of Jamestown, Virginia, several names of Swiss are found. In 1633, Peter Fabian, a Bernese, accompanied an expedition of the English Carolina Company to the southern colonies as scientific expert. The first distinctly Swiss settlement is reported to have been established in 1670, near Charleston, South Carolina, under the guidance of the Genevese Carteret. In 1683 the name of George Wertmüller, a Swiss, appears among the first arrivals at Germantown in Pennsylvania. Then, in 1710, the first settlement of Swiss Mennonites is recorded in Lancaster county, Pennsylvania, simultaneously with the founding of New Bern, North Carolina, by Christopher de Graffenried.

So it is apparent, that from the time when the New World was open to settlement, the Swiss were among the first to take advantage of the opportunity. Numerous cities, towns and counties in the United States, bear witness to the successful activity of Swiss settlers; names such as New Bern, New Glarus, Lucerne, etc., were adopted to perpetuate the memory of their old home in Switzerland.

While much of the information presented in these biographies is original, the editors do not profess to offer primarily new and original data, nor to reveal entirely new phases in the careers of the subjects recorded; their claim is rather that they have collected the scattered material, and have had it sifted and verified by relatives, descendants and other authorities, so as to secure accuracy and authenticity.

In selecting the subjects for this first volume, the editors have been guided particularly by historical motives, and have included those who, from the purely individualistic-economic point of view, as men of wealth in the popular sense, may not have been of outstanding significance, but who, as pioneers in their respective fields of endeavor have rendered valuable services in opening new possibilities for the coming generations. We have paid our tribute to those characters of humble pretention, in the belief that true greatness is estimated in terms of one's usefulness to mankind.

ALBERT BARTHOLDI
For the Swiss-American Historical Society.

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SWISS-AMERICAN HISTORICAL SOCIETY
By Ernst Buehler, *President*
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THE ANCESTRY OF HERBERT CLARK HOOVER, THIRTY-FIRST PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES

DOWN to the time when Herbert Hoover was nominated for the Presidency of the United States, the occupants of the highest office within the gift of the American people were exclusively of British and Dutch origin. Of the thirty Presidents, up to and including Calvin Coolidge, twenty-eight were of British, and two—Martin Van Buren and Theodore Roosevelt—of Dutch origin. This ethnological characteristicum is attributable mainly to the effect of a corresponding trend of this country's political development.

As the population of the Atlantic seaboard colonies became predominantly English, finally to be consolidated under British control, the English language and culture became dominant in this country. In logical sequence also in our political institutions and customs, while they are partly unique, or modifications of general European ideas to suit American conditions, English traditions are largely prevalent. As the Dutch were among the earliest permanent colonists, and mainly surrounded by the English, it follows that they should have been the first settlers in the New World to make their influence felt in the affairs of the American Colonies, and later in the nation that emerged therefrom, and to offer candidates for the highest office in the land.

The Germans, Swiss, Huguenots, and other European elements, did not arrive in large numbers until the eighteenth century, at a time, when the political and cultural status of this country already was firmly established, and, therefore they were obliged to adapt themselves to prevailing conditions, before they were able to exercise any great influence politically, in order to become aspirants for the Presidency, since the English adhered tenaciously to their political ideals and traditions. However, from the beginning, these immigrants have had their share of occupants of numerous other high offices in state and nation, and it may be said to their credit, that they have served most honorably and effectively.

When Herbert Hoover was chosen for the Presidency, the origin of his ancestry (as in the case of former Presidents) became a subject of more or less general interest. While it was known to a few that he was descended from that great group of American colonial stock, known as Pennsylvania Dutch, *i.e.*, Germans, Swiss and Huguenots, it naturally was assumed that he was of Dutch origin.

The influence of these Pennsylvania Germans, Swiss, and Huguenots, in the material growth of the nation, has been most important. The history of their achievements in the development of America is a most fascinating story, and as yet has been only partly recorded in the prints. They are of the ''warp and woof'' of our so-called colonial or early American stock, and it is safe to predict that other Presidential candidates from this element, as from others, may be expected in the future.

Comprehensive inquiry into the genealogy of President Hoover was instituted almost simultaneously yet independently, in America by Major Calvin Kephart, of Washington, D. C., and in Europe, by Professor Hermann F. Macco, of Berlin-Steglitz, the latter on the initiative of Mr. Richard W. Stoudt, of Buenos Aires, Argentina. The first and most necessary fact to be determined was the correct name of the immigrant ancestor, and this Major Kephart found to be Andreas Huber, who as a lad fifteen years of age, arrived at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on September 9, 1738.

Inasmuch as the larger part of the Pennsylvania Germans came from the Palatinate, Professor Macco undertook a careful genealogical research in that region for evidences of the parentage of the immigrant. After some difficulty, he was successful in finding church entries relating to the immigrant Huber and his immediate relations. This lad, born January 29, 1723, at Ellerstadt, District of Dürkheim, in the Palatinate, was a son of Gregor Jonas and Anna Maria Huber. The father had come from Oberkulm, in the present township of Kulm of the Canton of Aargau (before 1798, a part of Berne), Switzerland. His father, in turn, was Johann Heinrich Huber, a linen-weaver at Oberkulm, born about 1644.

Professor Macco then carried his research back through successive generations in that part of Switzerland to one Bur, surnamed Huber, who, in 1265, was a freeholder under feudal tenure of a Knight at Liebegg, in the Valley of the Wynen River. It is believed that this landholder was identical with the Burchard Huber, son of Bertoldus Hübere, of Berne, first mentioned as of 1227, who was born about 1185, and apparently was the first to adopt this surname.

When surnames were new, it was customary to refer to a man as Burchard dictus (genannt) Huber, meaning Burchard called or surnamed Huber, and this form was used during the second generation. The original spelling, Hübere, suggests, as Major Kephart chronicles, that Bertoldus may have been a younger son of some landholder in Burgundian territory, and that he settled in the Aargau at the time when the French King Philip Augustus (1188-1223) was subjugating his unruly barons in the region of the Jura Mountains.

The name Huber means a tenant of an estate (farm) or ''Hube'' under feudal tenure. It seems clear that as freemen, the Hubers early became Swiss landholders of considerable importance and influence. Specific mention is made of a Hans Huber as one of the leaders in the Rebellion of 1492. Their prominence also is evident from the early existence of their heraldic coat of arms, at a time when such a distinction still had an official meaning.

In 1641, George Huber, of Oberkulm, appears in the annals as sub-bailiff (Untervogt) of Lenzburg, and as owner of the flour-mill at Oberkulm, which building, once known as ''Neuenstein,'' home of the sub-bailiff Huber on the Wynen, still is in existence as an inn (Gasthaus zum Bären), and is owned and occupied by a member of this Huber family.

In 1697 or 1699, Jonas Huber emigrated to the Palatinate, thereby following the example of many enterprising Swiss, who took advantage of the opportunities offered them in that region of the Rhineland, which in 1688 had been devastated by the armies of Louis XIV. Those industrious Swiss artisans were welcomed in the Palatinate as co-workers in the reconstruction of the ruined towns and villages. The reason for Jonas Huber's emigration from Oberkulm to the Palatinate therefore was economic; it was not because of religious persecutions, as is so often represented. The religious persecutions directed against the Mennonites took place at an earlier date, and already had subsided in that region when Jonas Huber left Oberkulm.

Of this Huber family, only one branch embraced the faith of the Mennonites; this branch, however, remained in its hometown of Teufenthal.

Jonas Huber settled at Ellerstadt, in the District of Dürkheim, in the Palatinate, where he lived until his death on April 13, 1741. His son, Andreas Huber, born in 1723, at Ellerstadt, as previously stated, emigrated to America at the age of fifteen, and thus became the first American ancestor of President Herbert Hoover. The ship agent evidently entered the name of emigrant Andreas as it sounded to him, for on the passenger list, which still is in existence, his name was entered as ''Hoover'' instead of Huber.

A careful study of local documents and church registers has further revealed that two other members of this Huber family emigrated to the New World, namely, Johannes in 1728, and Christian in 1732. This confirms the tradition in the Hoover family, that three brothers came to this country.

Several Swiss communities already had been established in Lancaster county, Pennsylvania, and, for obvious reasons, these people, like the colonists of other nationalities, tended in the beginning to associate and settle together. Later, after becoming familiar with the surrounding country, many migrated elsewhere.

The romantic narratives which circulated in the old country from reports of those who had emigrated to America, inspired many of the younger generation to join their relatives in the New World. These narratives appeared also to have aroused the young Andreas Huber, who recognized his opportunity for undertaking the same venture, when he learned that a neighbor, Wolfgang (Wolf) Braun, and his nephew, Adam Braun, had decided to emigrate. Andreas apparently gained the consent of his parents and left with his neighbors on the ship *Two Sisters,* sailing from Rotterdam and arriving at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, September 9, 1738.

At first, Andreas settled in Lancaster county, in which district a relation of Wolf Braun, and Johannes and Christian Huber, his own brothers, previously had settled. Young Andreas made his home with his brothers for almost seven years, seemingly, mostly with Johannes.

During this time, he made the acquaintance of Margaret Catherine Pfautz (Fouts), also of Swiss descent, whom he married in 1745. With his wife's brothers, Michael and John Pfautz, he then moved to what now is known as Carroll county, Maryland, where, near Big Pipe Creek, they acquired farmsteads from the Colonial Government.

In 1779, Andrew Hoover, together with his family, moved south and selected a home site on the banks of the Uwharrie river, in Randolph county, North Carolina, near the spot which later became known as the ''Hoover Hill'' community. About 1762, the name of Huber was anglicized, by the members of the family to Hoover. Andrew Hoover died in 1794, leaving thirteen children. He is credited with honorable action in a program of flood relief, thus antedating over 150 years similar acts of relief by his famous descendant. His grave—as Nixon Plummer reports in the *New York Times,*—recently was found on the hillside near the site of the old home.

The old Hoover farm and water-mill are now landmarks of the early activities of our President's forebears in America.

The community which Andreas Huber founded in Randolph county continues today under the same name. Until quite recently, his old ''millseat'' remained in the possession of a member of the Hoover family. Until four years ago, Hoover Hill was a post office. Hoover Grove is the local name of a church and burial ground, and nearby are the remains or barren sites of many other Hoover homesteads established by descendants of Andrew Hoover.

From the records in North Carolina, it is evident that Andrew Hoover and his descendants took great interest in political affairs and played a prominent part in that section. One son of Andrew Hoover was a member of a board of magistrates, before which Andrew Jackson appeared after going to Randolph county in 1787 to practice law. Nixon Plummer further states, that in 1828, George Hoover was clerk of the county court.

In the course of time, the children of Andrew Hoover accumulated large properties. The old grist-mill afforded a good income in corn and wheat accepted as payment for grinding. It must have been one of the foremost mills, for it was noted through many generations. After Andrew Hoover passed away in 1794, the mill came into possession of his son, Jacob Hoover. When the latter's son, Joseph Hoover, succeeded to the ownership of the millseat, it was at least fifty years old, and it was he who, before his death, requested that it should remain in the family for one hundred years. His request was complied with, though the name of the mill had been changed. Up to 1890, the mill was known as Arnold's mill, and today it is Skeens's mill.

John Hoover, who also was a millwright, was born in 1760. He married Sarah Burket (Burkhart, a Swiss name), and settled at West Milton, Miami county, Ohio.

The next in line, Jesse Hoover, born in the old home in North Carolina in 1800, migrated farther west in 1854, and took up his abode at West Branch, Iowa, where he died in November, 1856. His son Eli, born July 16, 1820 at West Milton, Ohio, died at Hubbard, Iowa, July 24, 1892. Eli Hoover's son, Jesse Clark Hoover, the President's father, was born September 2, 1846, in Miami county, Ohio; he lived and died in West Branch, Iowa.

By occupation, the President's father was a blacksmith, though not of the ordinary type, for he extended his trade in many ways. He made farming implements, and later traded in farm machinery brought from the East. He lived in modest circumstances, and like his wife, Hulda Randall Minthorn, a Canadian by birth, possessed unusual moral and intellectual qualities. On December 13, 1880, Jesse Clark Hoover died, leaving a widow and three minor children. For more than two years, the widowed mother courageously managed to provide means for the support of her family, then she also died.

As a result of the death of both parents, the little family was broken up and the duty of raising the orphans assumed by relatives. That the latter fulfilled their obligations in the most conscientious manner possible, is evident from the fact, that the two orphan boys were brought up to be great assets to this nation, for the elder son, Theodore Jesse, now is Dean of the School of Engineering at the Leland Stanford, Jr., University in California, while the younger, Herbert, was called by the people to the most exalted office in the land—that of President of the United States.

A. BA.

Sources of Information:

Four letters addressed to the writer from the Executive Mansion, Washington.
Two letters addressed to the writer from Professor Hermann Frederich Macco of Berlin-Steglitz.
Data furnished to the writer by Major Calvin Kephart of Washington, D. C.
Articles by Major Calvin Kephart in the *National Genealogical Society Magazine*, issues of March, June, and December, 1929.
"In the Homeland of the Early Hoovers," by Nixon Plummer in the *New York Times*, June 9, 1929.
"Hoover's Swiss Ancestors," by Pierre Van Passen in the *New York Evening World*, November 4, 1929.

JEAN JACQUES DUFOUR

Pioneer of Viticulture; Founder of Vevay, Indiana

Born about 1767, at Chatelard, Canton of Vaud, Switzerland.
Died in the spring of 1827, at Vevay, Indiana.

THE ancestors of Jean Jacques Dufour had been vine-dressers and small farmers in the district between Montreux and Vevey on Lake Geneva. He was the oldest son of J. J. Dufour and, together with his younger brother Daniel, he was the issue of his father's first wife. Six children by a second wife—three sons and three daughters—were born from 1779 to 1791.

All of them eventually emigrated to the United States, where they founded the town of Vevay, in Switzerland county, Indiana, and were instrumental as pioneers in introducing the culture of the grape-vine into this country, although the idea and initial step may properly be credited to Jean Jacques Dufour.

When a lad of fourteen and fifteen years, he used to read accounts in the local newspapers of the Revolutionary war in America, written by French and Swiss soldiers, who were fighting on the side of the Americans in the regiments of General Lafayette. They complained of the scarcity of good wine in the midst of the greatest abundance of everything else.

This aroused in Jean the desire to emigrate to America and engage in viticulture. Being born in a wine-producing district, he determined to thoroughly learn the vine-dresser's trade, and all about the cultivation of grape-vines and the making of wine. Why shouldn't he emigrate to America and introduce vine culture on a large scale and become prosperous? He revealed his plan to his father, who agreed that he should try it and, if successful, have all of his brothers and sisters join him.

In the spring of 1796, Jean Jacques set out from Lausanne, his father having assisted him financially. After landing safely in Philadelphia, he soon traveled westward to the Ohio river, finally going as far West as St. Louis, carefully viewing the land for a suitable location. While thus engaged he also did some trading in order to learn the language and the ways and manners of the people.

In 1798, while on a trip from Pittsburgh to Lexington, Kentucky, he found some people in the latter place who became interested in his proposed venture. They organized a vineyard association (the first in America), with Dufour as agent and manager. He bought a tract of 630 acres on the big bend of the Kentucky river near its junction with the Ohio. He next purchased several thousand vines of thirty-five different specimens, together with some fruit trees, in Philadelphia and Baltimore; later importing some from Switzerland.

In a series of narratives, Dufour describes the direct motives which induced him to emigrate, and relates his varied experiences as a pioneer and homeseeker. His manuscripts, together with other family papers, official documents, traditions and happenings relating to the settlement, were collected and edited by his nephew, Perret Dufour, and published in a historical volume in 1925 by the Indiana Historical Commission under the title: *The Swiss Settlement of Switzerland County, Indiana.*

Herewith, in part, are quoted his recollections:

> When I took the resolution to come to America to try the cultivation of the grape I was but fourteen; and I came to this determination by reading the newspapers which were full of the American Revolutionary War, and contained many letters from officers of the French army aiding the Republicans, which complained of the scarcity of wine among them, in the midst of the greatest abundance of everything else. By the inspection of maps I saw that America was in the parallel of the best wine countries in the world, like Spain, South of France, Italy and Greece. I then made the culture of the grape a study, to be better able to succeed here.
>
> It is that resolution which made me a vine-dresser, although some may think I am not fit for it, being maimed in my left arm; it was that resolution which made me lose several chances of getting rich, in my journeying through America, because it had so completely absorbed all my other thoughts; and it was also that resolution which made me accept a proposal of an association for the cultivation of the grape in Kentucky, under the same principles as the one established in Philadelphia, though not knowing, however, which of those societies had been the first; but the Kentucky Vineyard Society may be, with great propriety, considered as the beginner, the true introducer of the cultivation of grapevines into the United States; although it proved to be a ruinous affair, both to the shareholders and their vine-dresser; nevertheless, millions will accrue to the country at large from the school made here. . . . Five acres were planted with 35 different species of the best grapes; the greater part was obtained by purchase in New York, Philadelphia and Baltimore; and another small part brought directly from my own vineyards in Switzerland when my brothers came over to join me.
>
> For three years we were in full expectation and worked with great

> courage. A great many species of vines showed fruit the third year. . . . But, alas! it was the first and last year that vine ever bore fruit: a sickness took hold of all our vines, except the few stocks of Cape and Madeira grapes, from each of which we made the fourth year some wine, which the shareholders in Lexington drank the next March.

The association resolved to present a sample of their first wine to the members of the United States Congress. John Francis Dufour, a younger brother of Jean Jacques, was delegated to transport the wine to Washington. On his arrival, he was received by President Thomas Jefferson, who personally presented the gift, consisting of two five-gallon kegs, to a committee of Congress. Great satisfaction was expressed at the good quality of the first American wine.

Jean Jacques continues his narrative as follows:

> The failure of the first plantation caused a relaxation among the shareholders; they withdrew. . . . Then the whole burden of the establishment rested on our family, who kept good courage. My two younger brothers (John Francis and John David), who tried to keep the place, found themselves too weak to support it, one frosty spring having taken all their crop. . . . Upon my return from Europe, in 1816, I found the vineyard grown up with briars, with strangers on the land, and I had to have recourse to law to have the intruders ejected.

From the foregoing account it appears that after the failure of his first attempt in cultivating grape-vines, the association was dissolved. The responsibilities of the enterprise were thereafter fully assumed by the Dufours, and it now was conducted as a common family property, until finally it had to be abandoned entirely.

Jean Jacques Dufour then found a better location on the Ohio river in Indiana, about 70 miles below Cincinnati. They moved to this location after he petitioned Congress, for authority for himself and associates to acquire, on an extended credit, a tract of land in Indiana, for the purpose of cultivating the grape-vine. His request was granted and an act of congress, dated May 1, 1802, empowered J. J. Dufour and his associates to purchase certain lands on six stipulated conditions.

In those (six) conditions the two contracting parties agreed upon the purpose for which the respective tracts of land were granted (cultivation of grapes), the price of the land ($2 per acre), the terms of payment (during twelve years at 6% interest per annum); the dimensions of the plots (2,500 acres, to which

1,200 acres were to be added later); the location of the settlement, and the security for the assumed obligations.

Soon after, the deal was closed. The colonists commenced to clear the land. In view of the necessarily slow progress in converting the wilderness into cultivated land, Jean Jacques Dufour decided to return to his native land for the purpose of winding up his affairs there, so that, at all events he might be in a position to meet his obligations toward the American Government. He was detained at home much longer than he had expected, and the War of 1812 prevented his return. Thus he addressed a memorial to Congress requesting an extension of time to meet his payments, and this was acceded to. When, in 1816, Dufour again reached Indiana, he immediately started his payments and, a year later, made a final settlement.

During his absence, the management of affairs was ably conducted by his younger brothers. The vineyards began to thrive, and more vines were planted until they covered an area of about fifty acres and yielded a maximum production of 12,000 gallons of wine.

> The vineyards of Vevay, in Switzerland County, relates John Francis Dufour, were places of resorts for those who visited Vevay. On such occasions, during court weeks, lawyers and judges were in the habit of spending an evening or an afternoon in quaffing some of ''Father Merodes'' (one of the Colonists) wine.

In addition to the cultivation of grapes, the Swiss settlers, who in the meantime had been augumented by others from Switzerland, also raised Indian corn, wheat, potatoes, and vegetables, and grew various kinds of fruits, as well as hemp, flax, and other products of the soil. Some of the women made straw hats, which they sold in Cincinnati and to traders navigating the Ohio river.

In 1810, John Francis Dufour sent a petition to Washington requesting a post-office for their settlement. The request was granted February 7, 1810, and John Francis Dufour appointed postmaster of Vevay, as the place was named. Their next step was to create educational facilities for their children; a school was opened in 1812 with Louis Gex as teacher, who conducted the courses in French. In the following year, the town was officially laid out, and in 1816 another school was opened in Vevay by one Alexander Holton, in which subjects of higher learning were taught. Holton's school soon attained a wide reputation and was well patronized.

For the cultivation of the intellectual and social life among the adult population the Vevay Literary Society was formed, and soon after a small public library was established through the accumulation of books by purchase and donations. Churches also were organized and edifices built. From their diversified and busy activity, it is evident that the Swiss colonists built up their settlement on a sound and well-planned basis, so that there was good reason to anticipate a prosperous future. Unfortunately, however, fate soon changed its serene countenance. During the War of 1812, the neighboring Indians began to molest the settlement, and it was visited with yellow fever and cholera, all of which tended to discourage the settlers and decimated the population. In consequence, the splendid reputation which Switzerland county had attained, now rapidly faded.

In addition to these detrimental factors, Jean Jacques Dufour had to admit that his plan of educating the people to drinking wine instead of whiskey was a failure, the latter already having too strong a hold on the native Americans. The wine which the Swiss colonists produced found no ready market. The original settlers were thinned by death; Jean Jacques himself died in 1827; and after that time the vineyards were neglected more and more, until they finally disappeared altogether, and regular farming was resorted to by the people.

Vevay, however, remained the county seat of Switzerland county, and in 1877 was chartered as a city, and today is a prosperous and pretty little town surrounded by orchards and waving grain fields. Jean Jacques Dufour, its founder, still holds a cherished place in the hearts of the people of Vevay. This fact is documented by the recent publication of a historical volume, collected and written by the historian of Switzerland county, Perret Dufour, from which the essential data and facts of this biographical sketch are taken.

A. R.

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CHRISTOPHER de GRAFFENRIED

Early American Pioneer, and Founder of First Swiss Colony in America

Born November 15, 1661, at Worb, near Berne, Switzerland.
Died in 1742 at Worb, Switzerland.

BORN at Worb, Canton of Berne, November 15, 1661, de Graffenried came of a family long prominent in Switzerland. In boyhood he spent several years in travel, visiting the principal capitals of Europe and becoming a favorite in the court circles of Charles II of England, and Louis XIV of France. During his residence in London, where he enjoyed the friendship of the Duke of Albemarle and the Duke of Buckingham, Cambridge University conferred upon him, in his twenty-first year, the degree of doctor of laws. In 1683 he married Regina Tscharner, whose family, like his own, was powerful in Swiss affairs, and in 1702 became bailiff of Yverdon. Various circumstances combined to render this office unattractive to him, and, as the end of his term approached, reports which reached him of the fertility of the land, the liberty of the people, the prosperity of trade, and the richness of mines in America, led him to consider the establishment of a colony there.

Troubles in the Palatinate had caused thousands of the inhabitants of that region to emigrate to England, where, failing to find means of livelihood, they had become a source of embarrassment and expense to the crown, as well as to individuals. America was proposed as a haven for them, and de Graffenried undertaking to lead a colony of his countrymen to Virginia, received a contribution of £4,000 from Queen Anne who made him Landgrave of Carolina and Baron of Bernburg.

The first party of colonists embarked in January, 1710, and after a stormy passage of thirteen weeks reached Virginia. At the mouth of James river, the ship containing the best of the stores was captured and plundered by a French privateer. During the voyage much sickness and death resulted from the unaccustomed diet of salt food, and, after landing, and before the colony was founded, many members of the expedition, through excessive indulgence in raw fruit and similar imprudences, perished of fever. The survivors were located by Lawson, the colonial surveyor-general, on the south side of the Trent river, near its confluence with the Neuse, in the present State of North Carolina, at a place first known as Chattoka, but later named by de Graffenried, New Bern. In 1710, upon reaching America, he found the colonists who had preceded him in a wretched state, lacking food and clothing. He attributed much of their misery to the site chosen for the settlement, believing that the colony should have been planted farther north, on the Neuse river, where the heat was less intense and the surroundings healthier, and that Lawson, in fixing the location, had been actuated by a selfish desire to have the land, which he owned, cleared for his benefit by the colonists.

Although already burdened by heavy obligations incurred in Europe, de Graffenried undertook at once, by the use of his personal credit, to relieve the wants of his people. He sent to Pennsylvania for flour and to Virginia for other supplies, and, notwithstanding the fact that many of the settlers were turbulent and difficult to govern, he speedily brought order out of chaos. The land was surveyed, a plot of ground allotted to each family, grist-mills built, and in eighteen months, as the Baron afterward wrote, his colonists had made more advancement than had the English inhabitants in four years. That this prosperity did not continue was due to no fault of his, but to incursions by the Indians, which, had his counsel been followed, might have been avoided.

The Indian hostilities appear largely to have been occasioned by the machinations of a certain Colonel Cary, who, at the time of de Graffenried's arrival, was seeking, with the aid of a band of armed followers, to prevent Edward Hyde from assuming the governorship of the province. Hyde had been chosen governor by the Lords Proprietors, but his letters-patent had not yet been received, and Governor Tynte, who had been officially notified to install him in the office, had died before the day set for the ceremony. As soon as he reached the colony he was waited upon by a deputation of Quakers, who urged him to assume direction of the affairs of the province by taking the presidency of the provincial council, arguing that as Landgrave he ranked first after the governor, and so was entitled to preside either during an interregnum or in the absence of the governor.

His reply was that he had been a witness to the choice of Hyde by the Lords Proprietors, that the patent of office soon would arrive, and that in his opinion the province ought to have no hesitancy in receiving Hyde as governor. Perceiving that he and his followers, by reason of their number, held the balance of power, and that this fact was recognized by the contending factions, he suggested that a letter should be sent to Cary, warning him that unless he ceased his rebellious activities and entered into an agreement for the settlement of the government, his support would be thrown to Hyde.

Though Cary returned a defiant reply, the letter had its effect, and shortly afterward Cary agreed in writing that Hyde should hold the presidency of the council until new orders came from the Lords Proprietors, refusing, however, to accept him as governor. Despite the agreement, Cary continued to augment his armed force, at the same time threatening to instigate Indian attacks upon the English inhabitants unless they maintained an attitude of neutrality between himself and Hyde.

The situation became increasingly difficult to de Graffenried, who sought to avoid active participation in the controversy. He wrote to Governor Hyde, who sent him an appointment as Colonel of Bath county, with a request for his assistance against the rebels. It was the desire of his people to remain neutral, but upon the governor's commanding his presence he reluctantly attended a meeting of the council at the house of Colonel Pollock, one of its members, three days' journey from New Bern.

While the meeting of the council was in progress, an English brigantine, which just had arrived and the captain and crew of which had gone over to Cary, passed the Pollock house which was near the shore, and fired two shots which, however, did no damage. The Hyde party returned the fire, and the brigantine, after losing a mast, fled, and later was captured by some of Hyde's men, who had followed in a small sloop.

When at length it was decided to apply to Governor Spotswood for assistance de Graffenried was selected as emissary. Though at first disinclined to intervene, Spotswood was disposed to be agreeable to him, remembering that they had been introduced by the Queen, and sent a man-of-war, with a force of marines, to North Carolina. Their appearance ended the rebellion of Cary, who was arrested in Virginia and transported under guard to London.

An invitation from Surveyor-General Lawson to travel with him up the Neuse river led him into the most dangerous of his American adventures. Lawson proposed that they should ascertain how far up the river was navigable, and whether there was a shorter route to Virginia than the one then followed. De Graffenried on his part wished to know at what distance from his settlement the mountains lay. Lawson assured him that no danger from Indians was to be apprehended, and taking provisions for 14 days, they set out in a rowboat, accompanied by two friendly Indians and two negroes. As it developed afterward, they had chosen a most unfortunate time for the expedition, the Indians at that time being on the verge of launching an attack upon the settlements.

Three days' journey up the river, the party was seized by the Indians and taken before the Indian chief, King Hancock, at Catechna. De Graffenried was mistaken by the Indians for Governor Hyde, against whom their animosity had been stirred by members of the Cary faction, and for this reason his fate was in doubt for some time. The fairness and consideration which had marked all his previous dealings with the Indians undoubtedly now counted in his favor, for among his captors were two Indians whom he knew, one of them being a follower of the chief, King Taylor, from whom he had purchased the site of New Bern. He pursued a conciliatory course throughout, and finding an Indian who could speak English, persuaded him to speak on his behalf to the chiefs.

Lawson, on the other hand, blustered and threatened, becoming involved in a violent quarrel with one of the chiefs. His truculence, no doubt, occasioned his doom, for de Graffenried's life was spared, but Lawson was killed.

Although now assured that he was not to die, he still had a period of captivity to undergo. On the morning following Lawson's death, the chief men of the village informed him that a surprise attack upon the people of Pamtego, Neuse, and Trent rivers and Core Sound was planned, and that he would not be released until after the return of the Indians from this expedition. He accordingly was forced to remain in durance, while the Indians descended upon the settlements, and to witness their return with prisoners and booty, fifteen of his Palatines being among those captured.

At length he entered into a separate treaty of peace with the respective Indian tribes, engaging to pay a ransom, and, after numerous delays, due to the suspicion of the Indians that the ransom would be withheld, once more reached New Bern. There he encountered further difficulties. Certain of the settlers, some of the English in particular, took umbrage at his refusal to permit the killing of an Indian who, under his assurance of safe conduct, had accompanied him to receive the stipulated ransom. They also were insistent upon immediate warfare against the Indians. He retorted that if the Indians could not be induced to keep a treaty of peace, at least a truce should be maintained until the release of his fifteen Palatines could be obtained, and until such time as the settlements could be put in a proper state of defence and equipped with munitions and supplies. His advice was rejected, with results disastrous to the settlers. The English, under Colonel Brice, attacked the Indians, who, in turn, ravaged the settlements. The Baron fortified New Bern and for 22 weeks, with his own means, supported himself and his people, until lack of food forced him to leave his post to seek aid of the governor. The havoc wrought by the Indians reduced the colony to a pitiable plight. Disaffection then arose among its members, about half of whom turned against their leader.

After talking with one Michel and others from Virginia and Maryland, he determined to establish a new settlement in Virginia, composed of those of the Palatines who still were loyal to him, and he went to Governor Hyde to arrange for the sending of a ship, loaded with supplies, to New Bern. Upon its arrival, those who were to form his new colony were to be taken aboard, and the ship was to proceed to Virginia.

Having spent six weeks with the governor and council, he succeeded in despatching to New Bern, a small sloop, filled with corn, powder, lead and tobacco, but through the carelessness of the crew it took fire and was destroyed. He set about provisioning a larger vessel, the accomplishment of which, however, was much delayed. Meanwhile, the Governor of South Carolina sent Colonel Barnwell into North Carolina with eight hundred Indians and fifty English, and in time the Indians in that section were subdued.

The Governor of Virginia agreed to provide a man-of-war as convoy for the sloop which was to carry the colonists to Virginia, and a time was appointed for their assembling on Currituck Island. These details being settled, he journeyed to the Potomac to set things in readiness for the arrival of the settlers.

He remained for some time at the house of one Rosier, near the falls of the Potomac, awaiting the coming of his party, meanwhile exploring the nearby region and choosing the sites for the two colonies into which he had decided to divide his followers. One was to be located ''directly below the falls, where there was a very cheerful island of good soil, and opposite, in a corner between the Potomac River and a smaller one called Gold Creek, suited to receive everything which comes up or down before the falls, and the greatest merchant ships can sail there.'' The other was to be at Canavest, four miles above the falls. ''I believe,'' he wrote afterward, ''there is no more beautiful site in the world than this which we intended to divide into two small colonies.''

For two months he awaited word from Carolina. At last a message came from Michel. The sloop which was to have brought the colonists to Virginia had grounded upon a sand bar. He returned to Carolina to find that the ship had been so badly damaged by exposure to the heat through the summer, and by the depredations of marauders, that it was not worth repairing

De Graffenried had reached the limit of his financial resources. In the support of his colony at New Bern and his efforts to found the others in Virginia, he had incurred large debts and his creditors were becoming importunate. To remain in America would undoubtedly mean his arrest for debt; in Europe he hoped to obtain funds with which to complete his colonial enterprise. He left at Easter in 1713, going by land to New York, whence he took ship to London. There he sought the assistance of the Duke of Beaufort, his patron, who was the First Lord Proprietor and Palatine of North Carolina, but Beaufort died suddenly, as he was about to lay de Graffenried's application before the Queen. The death of the Queen followed soon after, and, together with the subsequent changes in the English court, his expectation of immediate relief from that source vanished, and he was forced to return to Berne. Thenceforth he resided in his native land, in 1730 succeeding his father as Lord of Worb and relinquishing the lordship to his son, Ludwig, in 1740. He died in 1743, at the age of 82, and lies buried in the family church at Worb.

Despite the misfortunes which attended his colonial enterprises, the settlement of New Bern survived and developed into a prosperous town.

De Graffenried's son, Christopher, who, it appears, accompanied his father to Carolina, was the first of the family to settle permanently in America, having a plantation on the James river and a town house in Williamsburg, Virginia. He died in 1742, leaving but one child, a son, surviving him. This son, Tscharner, was four times married, and fourteen of his children lived to maturity. Two of them, Francis and Tscharner, fought and were wounded in the Revolutionary war, and three of his grandchildren, Abraham Maury, Metcalf and Matthew Fontaine, served under General Jackson in the War of 1812.

T. P. de G.

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CHARLES GRATIOT, SR.

Pioneer, Merchant, and Patriot

Born in 1752, in Lausanne, Switzerland.
Died April 20, 1817, in St. Louis, Missouri.

CHARLES GRATIOT, founder of the American branch of this distinguished family, was the only son of David and Marie (nee Bernard) Gratiot. When a lad of ten years, he was sent to his uncle, Bernard, who was established in business in London. After receiving an education to equip him for a business career, he entered his uncle's establishment as an apprentice.

Before he reached his majority, he emigrated to Montreal, Canada, where two other uncles also named Bernard, were engaged in the fur business. He remained with them for five years. Early in life, he developed an extraordinary capacity for business, and, having acquired a full knowledge of English, he was eager to branch out for himself. Embarking in the fur trade, young, active, intelligent and ambitious, he personally journeyed to the outposts of fur trading stations. This led him to undertake expeditions throughout the vast territory of the Northwest. Thus, in 1770, he visited the region around Green Bay and Prairie du Chien in Wisconsin. He explored the Maumee and the Wabash countries, and traversed the Upper Lakes and the Mississippi river, for the purpose of extending his trade.

Leaving the country of the Great Lakes in 1774, Charles Gratiot turned his attention to what then was known as the "Illinois Country," and set up establishments at Cahokia and Kaskaskia, on the Mississippi, near what now is known as the City of St. Louis. He developed a large trade with the white and Indian population of the region.

After the close of the Revolutionary war, Gratiot settled permanently in St. Louis, which then was a French settlement of less than a thousand people. He married Victoire Chouteau Laclède, and they had four sons and five daughters. Two of the sons (Henry and Charles, Jr.) also attained prominence, the one as a pioneer, the other as a soldier and they are separately treated in this volume. In time, Charles Gratiot acquired a considerable fortune, and became one of the leading citizens of the community. He had gone to St. Louis with a splendid business reputation, acquired in the Illinois Country, and elsewhere. In 1793, he made a trip in a canoe from St. Louis to Montreal, traveling up the Mississippi to the Wisconsin river and the Green Bay; thence to Mackinaw, and from there down the Lakes to Montreal. At this time he returned to London, remaining for twenty months, and engaging in the fur trade with a Mr. Schneider, the venture finally netted him considerable profit. While in London, he contemplated a trip to Russia to establish trading connections there, but this did not materialize.

At that time, it was said of him that he was better known in Paris, London, and Geneva because of his fur trading connections, than he was on this continent. His home in St. Louis was the center of hospitality, while his perfect knowledge of English (then almost unknown in that part of the country) brought to him all strangers visiting St. Louis.

His sympathy for the cause of the American revolution was revealed when General George Rogers Clark, the bold Virginian invader of the west, reached the Illinois Country and the Mississippi region. Clark and his men often were in terrible straits, without food and clothing, and compelled to live on the country, which at that time was sparsely settled. The people of St. Louis were too poor to do much to succor Clark, but Charles Gratiot and two others, Vigo and Menard, did all they could. Gratiot, especially, came to the rescue with almost his entire fortune, trusting that the United States Government would compensate him later.

On this point, a quotation from Governor Reynolds' *Pioneer History of Illinois* is quite elucidating:

> It is known to all that Clark had scarcely received any means from Virginia to conquer and retain the Illinois Country. The small army commanded by Clark was in a starving and destitute condition and had to rely for support on the resources of the country. They remained in the Illinois and Wabash countries for several years and were supported by the inhabitants during that time. The French people were too poor to give away their subsistence, and the support of the army fell upon Gratiot and Vigo for the most of the above crisis. Had they not come to the rescue, the great and glorious campaign of Clark must have failed for the time being. But the generous heart of Gratiot came to the rescue, and he paid and became accountable to them to

the full amount of his vast estate. His heart and soul were enlisted in the cause of human freedom. The blood of the country of Tell flowed in his veins, and all his means were exhausted in the glorious conquest (by Clark) of Illinois. In payment for his advances Virginia agreed to give him 30,000 acres of land in Kentucky; but after the state was organized it was impossible to carry out the agreement.

When in 1803 the United States took possession of the great expanse of territory, called ''Louisiana,'' after its cession by France, the people of St. Louis were thoroughly French in language, in spirit, habits and thought, and did not desire to be annexed to the United States. At the official ceremony in St. Louis they were rather apathetic; and it was from the house of Charles Gratiot that the American flag first floated, attesting to the fact of its Americanization. It was he who translated the ceremonial address of the American official into French, and at the conclusion, from the balcony of his house, proclaimed to the assembled people:

''Fellow citizens: we are French for the last time; tomorrow we are Americans forever.''

He was the only one, however, who gave a lusty cheer; the rest of the assemblage were too depressed and many wept. A. BA.

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HENRY GRATIOT

A Pioneer of Wisconsin

Born April 12, 1789, in St. Louis, Missouri.
Died April 27, 1836, in Baltimore, Maryland.

HENRY GRATIOT was reared in St. Louis at a time when that important pioneer outpost on the Mississippi was under French sovereignty, and was only fourteen years old, when, in 1803, Louisiana Territory was definitely ceded to the United States. Very likely he witnessed the official ceremony of this historic event, when the declaration was read to the assembled people from the portico of his father's house on which occasion his father acted as interpreter for the American Government's representative.

When he reached manhood, Henry married Miss Susan Hempstead, the daughter of a pioneer from Connecticut, who had settled in St. Louis. For several years, he was a pioneer farmer in the vicinity of St. Louis. When he heard of the finding of lead ore in the Fevre river district, in northwestern Illinois, near the border of Wisconsin Territory, he and his brother, Jean Pierre Bunyion, decided to try their fortune in the new ''El Dorado.'' In October, 1825, they started out in a covered wagon with sufficient supplies and food to carry them through. As may be imagined, the journey was an arduous one, and took them through mostly unbroken country. Besides being exposed to Indian attacks, they encountered much inclement weather, and finally reached ''January's Point,'' later named Galena, Illinois, before the real severity of the winter set in.

They spent their first winter building a log house, cabins for miners, and a crude smelter. In April, 1826, Henry returned to St. Louis to take his family and two negro servants to the new settlement. Henry Gratiot was opposed to chattel slavery, and that was one reason why he wished to settle in a state where such an institution was not tolerated. He wanted his family reared in surroundings that were not beset by the practice of placing a money value on human lives. There is a recorded document on file in the court house at Galena in which Henry and his brother, Jean Pierre Bunyion, bound themselves that a certain negro woman slave they had set free "shall never be a charge to the county."

After a few years of successful mining, smelting, and trading in Galena, the two brothers transferred their activities about fifteen miles northeast of Galena, in the Territory of Wisconsin. The new location was called Gratiot's Grove, and later Fort Gratiot. In 1829, a third brother, Paul Benjamin, joined them, and they ultimately operated mines and lead smelters at Mineral Point, Wis.

With the outbreak of the Black Hawk war in 1832, all three brothers joined the volunteer army and rendered valiant service in protecting the settlers from the depredations of the Indians, and subsequently in subduing the red men. Henry Gratiot, with the rank of colonel, later was designated Indian agent for the Winnebagos, and his tact and treatment endeared him to his charges. He amiably exerted his influence with them and in many instances was successful in his peace negotiations, thus averting further massacres and bloody retaliation on the part of the settlers.

For a number of years, at Gratiot's Grove, the Gratiots conducted an immense mining, smelting, and trading business. At one time, they had nine log furnaces in operation and did almost all the lead smelting for the entire mining district.

After peace had been restored, and the Black Hawk warriors were subdued, Henry Gratiot disposed of his mining interests, and again engaged in farming. In 1836, he made a trip to Washington, D. C., and visited his brother, General Charles Gratiot, Jr. While stopping in Baltimore on his return home, he was suddenly stricken with a fever, and died a few days afterwards in the arms of his brother, who had been summoned from Washington.

Henry Gratiot was a noble and generous man; his heart was filled with human kindness; he was beloved by all who knew and came in contact with him; his name stood as the synonym of probity, honor, and integrity. The greatest service he rendered to the early pioneers and settlers of the Northwest was his mediation with and his pacification of the various Indian tribes engaged in the Black Hawk war. A. Ba.

Source of Information: *See* bibliography concerning Charles Gratiot, Sr.

GEORGE H. HERMANN

Texas Pioneer and Philanthropist

Born August 6, 1843, in Houston, Texas.
Died October 21, 1914, in Baltimore, Maryland.

IT is perhaps mere coincidence that two of the outstanding Swiss-Americans who, so far as we have been able to ascertain, attained wealth and affluence by sheer industry, and who, after their earthly careers were ended, bequeathed the greater part or practically all of their acquisitions for philanthropic purposes, can both be credited to the State of Texas; or, it may be possible that the philanthropy and public benefactions of the one actuated the other.

These two Swiss-Americans lived in the neighboring and rival cities of Galveston and Houston, Texas. In another biography in this volume, we dwell at length on the life and career of Henry Rosenberg, the "Benefactor of Galveston." Now we shall sketch the life and philanthropy of George H. Hermann, of Houston.

He was born in Houston, Texas, August 6, 1843, the very year in which Henry Rosenberg came from Switzerland to Galveston. His parents were John Hermann, born in 1791 in Davos-Dorf, Canton Grisons, Switzerland, and Verena Michel, of the same village. It is not known when his parents came to Texas. However, it is known that his mother's father (grandfather of George H. Hermann) died in New Orleans in 1835. From this it may be surmised that the Hermanns were attracted to Texas in the thirties or forties of the last century, when Texas still was a province of Mexico.

They were pioneers who had made their home in the thriving little town of Houston.

Little, if anything more, is known about his parents. George H. Hermann remained a bachelor all his life. In his younger days, he was a cattle ranger, and later became a cattle dealer. In those pioneer days the lands for miles around the town were unfenced, and what was in those days called "free range" existed, *i.e.,* the cattle grazed and fed upon anybody's and everybody's unfenced lands. It cost very little to maintain the cattle, so that the difference between the purchase price and sale price was nearly all profit.

With the money he made in the cattle business, Hermann bought cheap town lots and cheap acreage, which he held for many years. In fact, he rarely disposed of the land he purchased, having a vision that some day it would become valuable; and in this he was not mistaken, for as the State of Texas developed and became prosperous, and the City of Houston grew into a seaport with the building of a ship channel from the Gulf of Mexico, a distance of 20 miles, his town and rural holdings increased greatly in value.

During the Civil war, he was a soldier in the Confederate Army.

In 1886, he bought 2,500 acres of very poor swampy timberland in the northern part of Harris county, which became part of the Humble oil field in 1904, when oil was found in that section of Texas. He paid perhaps not more than one dollar per acre for this tract, but at one time received royalties from it to the amount of $3,000 per day.

Hermann was a man of very simple tastes. He lived economically. For many years he stayed with a family of friends in a house owned by him. He frequently helped poor people, made numerous donations, and was especially kind and helpful to the sick. He had a peculiar trait of sitting up with and waiting on friends who were sick or in distress.

He was a great lover of fine horses and cattle, but never kept a stock farm; just enjoyed attending the county fairs where fine livestock was exhibited. At a very early date, he also saw the necessity of good roads in the agricultural regions of the State, and was a consistent advocate of good roads, believing it was true economy for the counties to spend money for this purpose. He lived to see the beginning of the good roads movement.

In 1885, Mr. Hermann visited Switzerland, at which time he also traveled in England, France, and Germany.

He died in St. Agnes Hospital, Baltimore, Maryland, October 21, 1914, aged 71, within a few days after an operation. At the time of his death, he had no near relatives.

In May, 1914, a few months before his death, he donated to the City of Houston a large tract of land for public park purposes, and by his will devised to the City of Houston adjoining lands, the whole containing more than 400 acres within the city limits, adjacent to the Hermann Hospital on the east side of Main street. This land at the time was worth $400,000; it now (1931) is valued at $1,500,000. He devised the remainder of his estate, which consisted of city real estate, buildings and dwellings, to a board of trustees, to construct, operate and maintain a charity hospital. The will recited that it was his wish that the indigent, poor, infirm, and sick shall receive the full benefit of the bequest. The will provides for a board of seven trustees to manage the estate, and that they act without compensation.

He had these philanthropic plans in mind for many years, according to statements of close friends. In fact, the more his wealth increased, the more the idea grew, and it was with that object in view that he held his estate intact.

In reverence to his parents, he never disposed of their home, in which he was born, and which occupied an entire city block. He always entertained tender sentiments in connection with his birthplace. It became valuable, being just opposite the new public library. He also willed this block to the City of Houston as a ''public park or breathing place to be known as Hermann Square.''

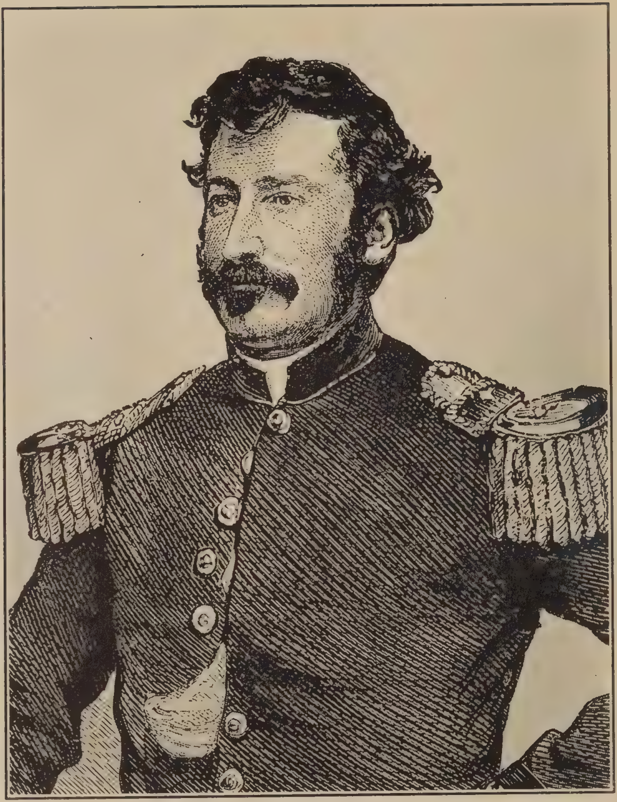
At the time of his death, his estate was valued at more than $3,000,000; it now is worth several times that, and the income is used in maintaining the largest public charity hospital in the state of Texas.

While Mr. Hermann's benevolence was not as many-sided as that of Henry Rosenberg, it is, in effect, just as humanitarian: given for public parks and free hospitals. It may be, that Hermann had cognizance of Mr. Rosenberg's benefactions in the neighboring City of Galveston; and in his own manner perpetuated his name by his purposeful and magnificent philanthropy.

True, Mr. Hermann was a born American; but his Swiss character was not entirely obliterated. His Swiss simplicity, modesty and benevolence are recognizable and living facts to the citizens of Houston. That which was born in him through his ancestors came to full fruition at his maturity. A.R.

Source of Information:

Compiled from data and notes furnished the writer by Frank Seliner of Houston, Texas.



JAMES S. NEGLEY

THE NEGLEY (NĂGELI) FAMILY

PENNSYLVANIA is richer in records of its pioneers than any of the original Colonies, and prominent among these, during the first half of the eighteenth century, were the Negleys or Năgelis, who settled in Bucks county and became citizens of that commonwealth. This family traces its origin from that cradle of great Europeans—Switzerland—which has so extensively contributed to the literature, science, economy, finance, and wealth of the world.

The pioneers of the American Negleys arrived in Pennsylvania in 1739, when Jacob Năgeli's family and his two brothers came to Philadelphia from Germany, where they had lived temporarily.

Jacob Nägeli

Born at Frankfort-on-the-Main, Germany.

Died at sea, en route to America

Jacob Năgeli was a direct descendant of the distinguished John Năgeli of Switzerland, the co-worker with Zwingli in the Reformation, and was born at Frankfort-on-the-Main, Germany. He grew to manhood, married, and was the father of three children when he determined to try his fortune in America. He explained his purpose to his brothers and they consented to accompany him. Enroute, Jacob Năgeli became ill, died, and was buried at sea. Dismayed, but not discouraged, his widow and her children, Alexander, Casper and Elizabeth, arrived in Philadelphia, and later removed to Bucks county. Her brothers-in-law settled in Maryland and Philadelphia, the latter on a hill, which now is known as Negley's Hill, in a suburb of Philadelphia.

Alexander Negley, Pioneer

Born in 1734, at Frankfort-on-the-Main, Germany.

Died November 3, 1809, at Negleystown, Pennsylvania.

Alexander Negley, eldest son of Jacob Năgeli, was the founder of the Pittsburgh branch of the family. He grew to manhood in Eastern Pennsylvania, receiving an excellent education in the schools of that day. Leaving Bucks county, owing to an Indian insurrection in the vicinity of Fort Pitt, he located for a time on a farm between New Florence and Ligonier, Pa. This property now is a part of Rachlewood Farms, the estate of his great-grandson, James Ross Mellon.

Alexander Negley was the first permanent white settler in the beautiful East Liberty Valley, where for half a century, his house with the surrounding country was known as Negleystown. He bought a farm for each of his children, and, having thus provided for his family, had more leisure time to give to the call of citizenship. He was a soldier of the American revolution, his name appearing on the list of the men of Captain Samuel Moorhead's Independent Company of Pennsylvania Troops of the Eighth Pennsylvania Regiment. His name also is to be found on the petition dated February 5, 1787, and presented to the legislature of the state for the organization of Allegheny county. His religious conviction had all the strength of heredity, his ancestors having been prominently active and eloquent in the Zwinglian Reformation. In 1782, Negley, together with 41 others, founded the first church organization in Pittsburgh, then known as Pitt township. History records that at times during this era, the Indian massacres of white people became alarming, and many had to flee their homes to seek protection at the nearest fort. As a result of these conditions, Alexander Negley had services conducted in his home about once a month. He and his family not alone contributed their services to the upbuilding of the commercial, financial, and industrial life of Pittsburgh, but they also did much to minister to the spiritual and educational needs of the growing community.

Alexander Negley died November 3, 1809, at his home in Negleystown, Pa.

Jacob Negley, Pioneer

Born August 28, 1766, in Bucks County, Pennsylvania.

Died March 18, 1827, at East Liberty, Pennsylvania.

Jacob Negley was the son of Alexander Negley, and, in his twelfth year (1778), came to the East Liberty district with his parents. In later years, he added to his paternal inheritance by the purchase of large tracts of land in the present vicinity of East Liberty. On his aggregate holdings, totaling about 1,500 acres, he earlier surveyed and laid out a town known as Negleystown, and subsequently named by him East Liberty, now a beautiful residential suburb of Pittsburgh. In addition to his own realty, his wife had inherited a large estate of 3,000 acres from her father. His administration of these estates elicited the praise of the business men and bankers of his day. He was an accomplished civil engineer, and a man of fine education. He had twelve children; the tenth, Sarah Jane, born February 3, 1817, married Judge Thomas Mellon. Her son, Andrew W. Mellon, was the secretary of the treasury in President Hoover's cabinet. He also served in the administration of the late President Warren G. Harding, and that of President Calvin Coolidge, and is one of America's wealthiest and greatest financiers.

Jacob Negley's farm site, upon which today is located the most valuable section of the eastern district of Pittsburgh, attests the rare judgment he exercised in his lifetime, as well as his clear vision of its future in its relation to the extension of the municipal lines in the direction of his property. The Lincoln Highway of today represents the realization of the ideas of this great pioneer. He was responsible for the erection of what actually was the first public school in that region.

The quality of the descendants of this pioneer, as expressed in their domestic relations, their citizenship, their positions in their community, city, state, nation, and indeed the world, attests the fine results of heredity, courage, ability, and vision.

James Scott Negley, Major General

Born December 22, 1826, at East Liberty, Pennsylvania.
Died August 7, 1901, at Plainfield, New Jersey.

James Scott Negley was educated in the public schools of East Liberty and took his collegiate course at the Western University of Pennsylvania, now the University of Pittsburgh. He became a member of the Duquesne Grays, a fine local pioneer military organization, and when the United States declared war against Mexico in 1846, his company became a part of the First Pennsylvania Regiment, which took part in the battles of Cerro Gordo, Las Vegas, and La Perote, and in the sieges of Vera Cruz and Puebla, young Negley winning official commendation because of conspicuous gallantry. After the war, he returned home and for a time engaged in manufacturing, later turning his attention to scientific and intensive horticulture and farming.

Maintaining his interest in military affairs, he was, before the secession of the Southern States, a brigadier general of the Eighteenth Division of the Pennsylvania State Militia. General

Negley perceived the inevitable and proffered his services to the Governor of Pennsylvania, offering to organize and drill a brigade. At the outbreak of the Civil war, the governor accepted General Negley's services and placed him in command of the state encampment at Lancaster, Pa., and later, in command of a brigade which was sent into the Shenandoah Valley, where he distinguished himself at the Battle of Falling Waters, Va. Subsequently, he commanded troops under General William T. Sherman in Kentucky, and under General W. S. Rosecrans in Tennessee, where he won fame for his military strategy. He fought Morgan, the Confederate leader, at Shelbyville, and at the battle of Lavergne, October 7, 1862. Later, under great difficulties, he defeated the combined Confederate forces of Generals Anderson and Forrest. At the battle of Stone River, he was in command of the Eighth Division and earned the special praise of his Government. Negley, now a major general, led the Federal advance at Lookout Mountain, and saved Thomas' army from defeat. His intrepidity in leadership and in action at Chickamauga, Rossville, and Chattanooga, greatly enhanced his reputation as a military man.

After the close of the war, General Negley retired from service and gave his attention to his business affairs in Pittsburgh. He became active in the politics, and for many years represented his state in Congress. He left Pittsburgh to engage in railroad enterprises in New York, living in Plainfield, New Jersey, where his death occurred August 7, 1901.

Such is the record of a single member of one of Pennsylvania's most prominent and distinguished pioneer families. The character upon which the career of this family has been constructed and carried for many recorded centuries, is the secret of its success and fame. This career had its foundations laid hundreds of years ago in Switzerland. A. Ba.

Sources of Information:

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Encyclopædia of Pennsylvania Biography, vol. v, pp. 1631-1640.
East Liberty Presbyterian Church, compiled by Georgina G. Negley, A.B.
Additions and Corrections by Alice M. Negley, East Liberty, Pittsburgh, Pa.

JEAN PIERRE PURRY

Pioneer and Early Colonizer of South Carolina

Born 1675, at Neuchâtel, Switzerland.
Died August 13, 1736, in Purrysburg, South Carolina.

JEAN PIERRE PURRY was the son of Henry de Purry and Marie Ersel, and was born at Neuchâtel in the year 1675, exact date being unknown. His father belonged to an old family of that city. Jean Pierre's intellectual caliber, enhanced and quickened by a liberal education, soon made itself manifest by his appointment, while still a young man, to the office of treasurer of the town of Boudry, and later as Mayor of Lignières. Aside from his public duties, he was engaged in several business ventures. However, the horizon of his native environment soon became too narrow for his boundless energy and his bubbling and ever-ready initiative to enter upon new enterprises.

In 1695, when only 20 years old, he married Lucrece Chaillet, by whom he had four children: two daughters and two sons, the sons being Charles, born 1699, and David, born 1709.

The dominating force in his makeup was to become rich; in fact, this became an obsession with him; his restless disposition yearned for a wider sphere of action. In 1716, when he heard of the organization in Paris of the large loan bank by that Scotch adventurer and financier, John Law, and which two years later was incorporated as a Royal bank of France, Jean Pierre Purry departed for the French capital.

In Paris, he engaged in banking operations with marvelous success. He became a director general of the French East India Company, and, in a comparatively short time, amassed a fortune of more than a half million francs. Seized by the fever of speculation, he craved for still larger riches. Jean Chambrier, a friend, who later became Minister of Prussia at Paris, admonished Purry to do as he had done: invest about one-third of his fortune in sound securities for the benefit of his wife and children. But Purry answered him coldly: "Here the talk is of millions; one must seek the millions, then one will get rich." However, luck soon turned against him in his speculations and he lost all he had made. A ruined man, he returned home to liquidate his remaining possessions and to prepare for new business ventures.

He next engaged in the business of exporting wine to Holland; but possessing no practical knowledge or experience in that line, he soon made a failure of the venture. During his travels to and from Holland, his vivid imagination was overwrought and excited by the fantastic tales he heard from the lips of adventurers of the wonderful El Doradoes across the seas. Again he made up his mind to seek Dame Fortune and, ignoring the pleas of his wife, took passage aboard ship.

He first set out for the Cape of Good Hope. Here he engaged in the cultivation of grapes, and his efforts proved quite successful. After a few years, however, he found the life of a grape-grower and vine-dresser too monotonous. Wealth did not materialize fast enough in that sort of business for this restless and impatient adventurer. He next contemplated a trip to Australia, which he had heard offered great opportunities to European settlers, as it practically was a virgin land of great promise.

He then went to London, for the purpose of submitting to the British Government a plan of colonization in Australia. The Minister of the Colonies was favorably impressed with Purry's plan, but he was more interested in the colonization of the British possessions across the Atlantic, and suggested to Purry to try his colonization scheme in America. Thus Purry was persuaded in favor of the British Colonies in the Western Hemisphere. He entered into an agreement with the Government's agent, and departed on a trip of investigation and exploration for the Carolinas. Here he remained for some time and made minute observations of the climate, soil, market conditions, and adaptability for European settlers, etc.

Purry returned to England and entered into an agreement with the Lords Proprietors of Carolina (a commission of eight Lords),[1] whereby they granted him 24,000 acres of land and upon which he was to settle 600 persons. The commission was to transport the emigrants free from England to Carolina. The land was to be deeded to Purry as soon as he had fulfilled his part of the contract.

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[1] A commission of eight English lords, namely: Earl of Clarendon, Duke of Albemarle, Lord Craven, Lord Berkeley, Lord Ashley (afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury), Sir George Carteret, Sir William Berkeley and Sir John Colleton, who in 1662 had received a patent from King Charles to the ownership of a province to be called Carolina, in latitude 31° to 36° N. in America. They were to have jurisdiction, institute government and appoint officers and, with the assistance of the settlers, make laws, etc.

In 1724, he addressed a memorial to the King of England and made a proposition to settle a number of Swiss Protestants in Carolina on the following conditions:

1. That the settlers should be granted four leagues square of land with the same rights and liberties as were enjoyed by the other inhabitants of the province.
2. That the settlers should be formed into a Swiss company of militia, of which Purry should be made captain or colonel. That he should also be made judge and have the right to nominate his own officials, etc.
3. That His Majesty should transport without charge from a port in England to one in Carolina.

His description of Carolina, which was said to have been the best ever given, was printed by G. Bowyer in London in 1724; later the document also was printed in the *Gentlemen's Magazine.* Before that, it had been published in French, and submitted to the English Government. It was a piece of ''real estate'' literature which was so alluring that no modern land boomer could improve upon it.

In his literature, Purry dwelt at length on the poor chances afforded the farmers and artisans in a country (Switzerland) that was over-populated, and which always needed wars to help diminish the population in order that starvation might be forestalled. In glowing colors, he enthusiastically pictured the splendid opportunities in a new land with virgin soil, where two crops could be raised, and where the grape-vine would also do well.

Purry then returned to Switzerland and, from all accounts, induced quite a number of people to prepare for emigration to Carolina. However, he was left in the lurch by the Lords Proprietors, who failed to comply with their part of the agreement. Consequently, the prospective emigrants were left stranded in Neuchâtel, causing untold misery to many of them. This unfortunate turn of affairs appears to have terminated Purry's first attempt at colonization in Carolina.

In July, 1730, Purry renewed his proposition to the British Crown for the grant of 12,000 acres of land in Carolina. It was referred to Governor Robert Johnson of Carolina, who, on July 20, 1730, wrote to the King and advised favorable action. Purry's proposition was accepted by His Majesty, the respective document bearing the date of March 10, 1731, at St. James Palace.

The conditions were: That the Swiss settlers upon their arrival take the oath of allegiance and that Purry, having the title of colonel conferred upon him, should only receive title to the land after fulfilling his part of the agreement. Instructions to this effect were transmitted to Governor Johnson.

Purry arrived in Charlestown in the early part of 1731. Here he met several other French Swiss, already settled in this seaport town. The site he selected for the colony was situated on the north bank of the Savannah river, known as "Great Yamasee Bluff." On September 1, 1731, Governor Johnson gave his approval of the townsite, enjoining others from procuring grants of land within six miles of the proposed townsite, which in honor of its founder was named Purrysburg.

Purry now applied for an additional grant of land in order to be able to satisfy all the settlers he expected to bring to America. His efforts were successful, and in July, 1732, additional instructions were sent to Governor Johnson, granting Purry 4,800 acres more, provided he was able to settle 600 Swiss Protestants within six years from Christmas, 1732.

The *South Carolina Gazette*, of October 28, 1732, reports: "On Wednesday last a ship arrived here in about twelve weeks' time from London, having about sixty Switzers on board." The exact dates and numbers are stated by Purry himself in an affidavit made at the time, the total being 152.

In the fall of 1733, Purry again returned to Europe for another contingent of settlers. By this time, the dissemination of his alluring pamphlets had aroused the Swiss authorities against Purry. Nevertheless, he was successful in pursuading a large number of farmers and artisans to emigrate. In November, 1734, he arrived in Carolina with 260 "Switzer Protestants" and their minister, Reverend Chiffelle. The records from now on do not reveal whether Purry himself conducted any other immigrants.

While the colony, for the first year or two, progressed rapidly, and more than a hundred houses were built, yet a few of the settlers became dissatisfied and disgruntled. Malarial fever also made its appearance, and quite a few of the settlers succumbed to it, while still others became discouraged because the provisions were not sufficient. Several of the colonists sold their lots and moved away.

Under these discouraging conditions Purry tried his best to buoy up the spirit of the people and keep the colony intact. The settlement was a large one, containing more than 600 people, composed, in part at least, of settlers of very substantial character. Time and experience proved that the site was ill suited for a successful settlement.

Purry died at the settlement in 1736. After his death, his son Charles, who had also come to the colony, took charge of affairs. The settlement continued for many years, notwithstanding considerable depletions by withdrawal to Georgia, to the healthier part of Beaufort (now Hampton) county, and other more favorable locations.

Charles Purry married and had family, and after his death in 1757, his daughter inherited some of the wealth of David Purry, her great-uncle (her grandfather's brother), who had become a wealthy merchant in Lisbon, Portugal, and who had bequeathed the bulk of his fortune to his native city, Neuchâtel.

A. R.

Sources of Information:

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Data furnished to the writer by Paul de Purry-de Muralt, banker, of Neuchâtel, Switzerland.

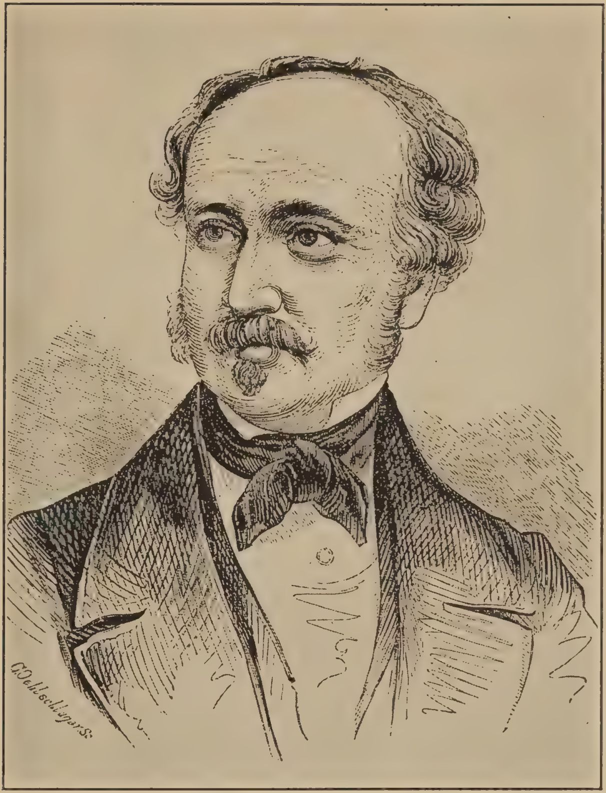
GENERAL JOHN A. SUTTER

American Pioneer

Born February 28, 1803, at Kandern, Grand Duchy of Baden, Germany.
Died June 18, 1880, in Washington, D. C.

NEVER did the career of an American pioneer begin so auspiciously and so promising of ultimate success, only to be nipped in the bud by a peculiar and unlucky circumstance when it had developed to an extent that presaged to make him one of the richest and most conspicuous men in America, as did that of our subject, John Augustus Sutter. The finding of gold on his lands in 1848 made an El Dorado of that part of California from which others reaped riches in the shape of the precious yellow metal, while Sutter's colony of New Helvetia, comprising almost 100,000 acres of rich land, where the City of Sacramento now stands, was smothered and ruined by the hordes of greedy gold-seekers who overran and took possession of it, because there was no organized government there to protect his rights. Of the numerous accounts of the discovery of gold in California, and the experiences and vicissitudes of Sutter, it has been deemed best to follow, in the main, the treatise written by Jacob B. Landis, of Lancaster County, Pennsylvania, who was personally acquainted with General Sutter during the last years of his life, when he lived in the town of Lititz, Penn.

John Augustus Sutter was born in Kandern, Grand Duchy of Baden, Germany, February 28, 1803. His father, John Jacob Sutter, and his mother, Christina Wilhelmina, née Stober, had moved there from Canton of Basel, Switzerland, in 1800, where the former accepted a position in a paper mill. He was of Swiss nationality, and considered himself a Swiss citizen. John Augustus received a common school education in Kandern, and, after attaining manhood, went to the City of Berne in 1820 to become proficient in military training. After serving for three years, he graduated from the Military College in 1823, soon after becoming an officer in the "Swiss Guard" of the French army, serving under Charles X. He saw service in the Spanish Cam-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JOHN A. SUTTER

paign of 1823-24, and in the vain resistance at Grenoble by Charles X. to the three-days' revolution of July, 1830.

After the overthrow of the Bourbon monarchy, he returned to Switzerland and served in the army there. He was noted for his bravery and close application to duty. Shortly after his graduation from the military college, he was married in Berne to Anna Dubelt, also a native of Switzerland.

Becoming tired of army life, and being anxious to improve his condition, he left the Swiss army. In 1833, he succeeded in organizing a company with the avowed purpose of emigrating to a vine-growing district in the United States, and there founding a colony, which would mainly engage in the cultivation of vineyards and the manufacture of wine.

Sutter arrived in New York in July, 1834, and soon after went to Missouri, where some German colonists had settled. He selected a suitable location for his undertaking in St. Charles, Missouri. Implements and other necessary materials were purchased, but, unfortunately, the vessel which was to have transported them struck a snag in the Mississippi and sank.

This accident changed the whole course of his career; instead of becoming a colonizer in Missouri, he set his mind on going farther West. He remained for a short time at Westport, and here declared his intention of becoming a citizen of the United States. He then joined a party of hunters and trappers, and went to New Mexico, but returned to Missouri in 1836.

The following year, however, he settled in Santa Fé, New Mexico, and proceeded to explore the vast region lying west of the Mississippi. He ventured in speculations with trappers—whites and Indians—with whom he carried on an extensive and profitable fur trade. While thus engaged, he learned much of Upper California from the trappers, who occasionally drifted into Santa Fé.

In the spring of 1838, he joined a party of the American Fur Company under command of Captain Tripp in their rendezvous in the Rocky Mountains. From here, Sutter, and another party of six men, set out across the mountains, and made their way, via Forts Hill, Baisi, and Walla Walla, to Oregon, descended to the Columbia river and, after many hardships, succeeded in reaching Fort Vancouver. Learning that innumerable delays must elapse before he could reach California, he sailed for the Sandwich Islands, hoping to embark thence direct for the Pacific coast. When he arrived there, no vessel was sailing in that direction and he shipped a cargo of goods aboard an English vessel bound for Sitka, Alaska, and after disposing of his wares, sailed down the coast to San Francisco bay. His ship anchored at Yerba Buena, the original name of San Francisco, July 2, 1839. Ordered by the provincial officer (then under Mexican rule) to leave Yerba Buena, as it was not a port of entry, he sailed for Monterey, ninety miles to the south, the only port on the western coast at that time. There he petitioned Governor Alvarado for permission to take up lands for colonization, along the Sacramento, which he thought a favorable site and as the land was in the interior, his request was granted, the only condition being that he return within a year. He was given a passport, the promise of citizenship, and such lands as he desired.

Sutter returned to Yerba Buena, then a settlement of about forty people, not one of whom possessed any knowledge of the Sacramento river. Neither the failure to secure guides, nor the fear of hostile Indians, deterred this intrepid adventurer from his hazardous undertaking. With his party of ten white men and eight Kanakas (natives from the Sandwich Islands), he succeeded in reaching the mouth of the Sacramento river. They followed the river inland to the mouth of the Feather river, but fearing attacks from the Indians, it was decided best to return to the mouth of the American river, where on August 16, 1839, on the south fork of the river, he landed his effects, and subsequently erected Sutter's Fort. Temporary huts were built and the land cleared and cultivated. The chief source of annoyance to the colony was the Indians, who continually were making attacks upon the settlement. Sutter informed one of the hostile chiefs who spoke Spanish, that his mission was a peaceful one and gave the Indians some beads and other things, as tokens of friendship.

On one occasion a party of white men surprised an attacking horde of Indians and put them to rout. Many of the red men afterwards became civilized and served Sutter as artisans or as soldiers in his fort. Sutter had brought with him about twelve pieces of cannon, which he had purchased from the Russians at Sitka. A temporary fort was erected and the guns mounted. As a soldier, he knew that the safeguarding of his undertaking was one of the prime requisites under such adverse conditions in colonizing. He posted sentinels day and night, and thus laid the foundation for his settlement.

By virtue of a contract made with the Russian Government during Sutter's stay in Sitka, the former was pledged to furnish him with iron and steel and files to be used in his shops, including 200 pounds of powder which he called his: ''Thus saith the Lord.''

In 1839, he brought to his ranch about 500 head of cattle, 50 horses, and a monada of 25 mares, which he had purchased. In the autumn of 1840, he added 1,000 head more to his herd, together with as many horses. In the fall of 1840, he built an adobe house, where the fort now stands. During this same year, the Indians again were troublesome, killing cattle and stealing and driving off horses and on such occasions he fired his big guns to frighten them.

In after years, when his strength was acknowledged, and his domain well established, an Indian chief told him that if it had not been for his big guns (cannons), his tribe would have scalped every man in his colony and plundered the settlement.

Returning to Monterey in June, 1841, he was formally made a Mexican citizen, received from Governor Alvarado a grant of 11 leagues of land near his settlement called ''New Helvetia,'' and was appointed military commander of Northern California and alcalde (governor) of the same district. A letter written in English by Sutter to Alvarado in this connection is preserved.

In that same year, Alexander Ratchoff, governor of the Russian possessions, known as ''Ross and Bodega'' near San Francisco Bay, offered to sell these colonies to Sutter. With the instinct of a shrewd business man, the Swiss captain negotiated the purchase for $30,000, to be paid in installments covering a period of four years. The purchase included several thousand head of livestock, a schooner of 180 tons, small arms, and several pieces of ordnance.

The erection of the fort, a quadrangular adobe structure capable of housing a thousand men, was begun in 1841 and completed in 1844. The building of this fort showed the prevision of Sutter to a nicety. It established his strength, and in time proved a godsend to numerous caravans of immigrants using the overland route. In 1843, the expedition under the command of Captain John C. Fremont, later a general, also found refuge there and was saved from the rigors of the cold mountain weather, and the attacks of hostile Indians.

In 1846 the fort mounted twelve pieces of artillery, and his garrison consisted of forty Indians. His military equipment was superior to anything on the Pacific coast, and gave him a very considerable military prestige. It made him master of the neighboring Indians, and at the same time, he could defy any attempt the Mexican authorities might make to banish him from the settlement.

The fort finished, he undertook a great variety of activities, and tried all sorts of experiments, some of which proved more detrimental than advantageous. He planted large areas of wheat; built a flour-mill; diverted water from the American river for irrigation purposes; grazed large herds of cattle and horses; sent hunters into the mountains and along the rivers for furs and elk skins; set up a distillery (which he later abandoned because the Indians took too kindly to its product); began the weaving of coarse woolen blankets; regularly operated a boat for freight and passengers between New Helvetia and San Francisco Bay; employed nearly all foreigners who came to him for work; administered justice as an official of the provincial government; and, in short, made his colony the nucleus of all activity, whether political or economic, of what then was the only settled portion of Northern California.

R. G. Cleland, in his *History of California* says:

> In addition to the varied activities with their decided local and personal interest, Sutter contributed in a much larger way to the making of California history than his aid to American immigration into this Mexican province. Few people today realize how large a part this hospitable, visionary, improvident land baron of the Sacramento played in the American advance to California. His fort occupied the most strategic position in all Northern California, so far as overland trails were concerned. . . . At Sutter's, these immigrants, exhausted and half starved, found shelter, food and clothing and had an opportunity to learn something of the new land and people to which they had come. More than one company caught in the mountain snows was saved from destruction by a rescue party sent from Sutter's fort. . . . So long as Sutter maintained his possessions on the Sacramento the passes and trails of the Sierras lay open to Americans.

In 1844, Sutter applied to the new governor, Micheltorena, for an additional land grant of 22 leagues, in order to feed his constantly growing herds. The petition was granted, mainly because Sutter had assisted in putting down a rebellion against the governor.

The zenith of his prosperity was attained in 1848. He had fulfilled the terms of his grant; his cherished dream was realized and he could point with pride to his "New Helvetia" as a living, growing reality. In addition to his fort, he owned all the land in sight. He had 13,000 head of horses, cattle, sheep, and hogs. Under the American government's rule, Gen. Stockton appointed him governor of the district and Kearney made him Indian agent. With all his wealth, he at that time was contented to live a simple, generous, hospitable, unostentatious life among the Americans, Irish, Germans, and the civilized Indians, who were members of the settlement. Little did he dream of the evil days ahead when like a cruel punishment for all his industry and civilizing efforts, the discovery of gold on his land proved his undoing and utter ruin.

James W. Marshall, a soldier of fortune from New Jersey, went to California in 1844. He was engaged in farming until the outbreak of the Mexican war, when he enlisted in the United States army. Upon his return after the war he found his cattle and horses strayed and stolen and applying to Sutter for work, was employed to locate and build a large sawmill. Marshall chose a favorable spot on the south fork of the American river, at a point now called Coloma and the mill was completed in January, 1848. On the night of February 2, Marshall went to Sutter's home and drew from his pocket a pouch containing grains of yellow metal. He told Sutter that the natives and whites had picked up the shining particles near the sawmill. Sutter applied the usual test, and discovered that it was pure gold. Both being convinced that there was more of the precious metal, begged the laborers to keep the find a secret until after the crops had been harvested.

Some six weeks later a teamster, who called at the sawmill heard of the discovery and spread the news. The result was that nobody was willing to work. The crops were unharvested, the land squatted, the cattle stolen and slaughtered, and, above all there was no legal redress.

During the rush of 1849-50, a party of five men from Missouri killed and sold $60,000 worth of his cattle and by January 1, 1852, all of his horses, cattle and hogs were appropriated by trespassers on his property.

In such a predicament it was natural for General Sutter to seek relief in the courts of the United States. His efforts in this direction covered a period of about eight years. Shortly after the discovery of gold, a United States Court of Land Commissioners was appointed to pass upon all claims for land in the new country. In Sutter's case, the commissioners found that his two Mexican land grants were perfect, and confirmed Sutter's title to them. The squatters, however, appealed to the

United States District Court which confirmed the decree of the land commissioners, but an appeal to the United States Supreme Court resulted in a confirmation of the lower court's decision respecting the first grant but reversed its decision as to Sutter's rights under the second grant.

Eventually, Sutter lost all of his landed estate. He endeavored to save the Hock farm, a valuable estate on the Feather river. He had hoped to have this as a place to spend the last years of his life with his wife and children, whom he had brought from Switzerland in 1852, after having been separated from them for eighteen years. This, however, he also lost in his financial failure, and, to add to his misery, his house was totally destroyed by fire in 1865, together with the valuable records of his pioneer life.

In this forlorn state the man who may be likened to John Jacob Astor in point of colonial enterprise, made an appeal to the National Government. The legislature of California promptly responded, probably without a direct appeal, and for fourteen years, beginning in 1864 paid him a pension of $250 a month, a sum which enabled him to further his claims before Congress. He was thus a petitioner before both National legislative bodies continuously from 1871 until his death in 1880.

He was regular in his habits. He read magazines, papers, and books assiduously, and could speak fluently English, German, French, Spanish, and Italian. He was an interesting conversationalist.

General Sutter had three children: two sons and a daughter. John, Jr., was twice married, both of his wives having been Mexicans, and at the time of his death was the American consul at Acapulco, Mexico. Annie, the general's only daughter, married Dr. Victor Link, and lived in Acapulco, Mexico for many years, and later in the states. Emile, the other son, never was married. He studied law in order to aid in the prosecution of his father's claims, and died at Ostend, Belgium, while on a business visit. A. R.

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EMANUEL ZIMMERMANN (CARPENTER)

Pioneer, Lawgiver, Jurist, and Patriot

Born in 1702, at Wattenwyl, Canton of Berne, Switzerland.
Died April 1, 1780, in Lancaster, Pennsylvania.

THE subject of this biographical sketch was the first-born child of Henry and Salome (Ruefener) Zimmermann. His mother was the widowed daughter of the Marquis de Fontenoy. She was born December 28, 1675, in Blumenstein, in the Bernese Oberland, while his father was born in Wattenwyl, a neighboring village, September 7, 1673.

The Zimmermanns had been native to that section of the Canton of Berne for many generations. Henry himself was the eldest son of a family of nine children, whose father also was named Henry. Early in life, he evinced an independent spirit, being of a restless disposition, and often roamed the nearby mountains. He attended the village school, where he proved himself bright, and alert of mind.

When a young man he entered the service of the French Army, as thousands of Swiss were wont to do in those days. However, after a few years of military service for the French king, Louis XIV, he returned to his native village and studied medicine. During this period he won the affection of a young widow by name of Ruefener, who was the daughter of the Marquis de Fontenoy. His financial resources at that time, however, did not permit him to marry.

During this period, he read one of the descriptive pamphlets that William Penn, the English Quaker, had circulated in the Palatinate, soliciting the unfortunate people of that war-ridden and devastated region of the Rhine country to settle in Pennsylvania. This made Henry eager to visit America. He first went to London to get first-hand information on the prospects of making his fortune in the newly settled country. Henry arrived in Germantown, Pennsylvania, about the middle of 1698, and was welcomed by a few other Swiss who had settled there among the first Germans who had founded the town in 1683. He made several exploration trips for the purpose of selecting some favorable location, and, finally, bought some land in the neighborhood and began to practice as a physician among the pioneers.

In 1700, Henry returned to Switzerland, convinced that America offered him a better opportunity to forge ahead. He then married his betrothed, but circumstances prevented their early return to America and it was not until 1706 that Henry, together with his family returned to Pennsylvania. In the meantime, two sons had been born to them: Emanuel and Gabriel. Henry was not penniless. He purchased a house and set up as a practicing physician in Germantown, meanwhile, taking more options on land farther west.

It is well perhaps to mention here that William Penn, or some of his agents, on issuing titles to land, often arbitrarily changed foreign names to English equivalents, by simply translating the patronymics. The clerk allowed himself this liberty with Henry Zimmermann's name and in the land transfer record changed it to Henry Carpenter. Thus confusion ensued. Henceforth, people of English speech called the Zimmermanns ''Carpenter,'' while the German-speaking portion retained Zimmermann. It was only when the third son of Henry, born in America, and also named Henry, upon reaching his majority, petitioned the assembly by special act to change his name to Carpenter, that Carpenter gradually became the legal and adopted name of most of the thousands of descendants of Henry Zimmermann.

The further life of Henry was spent as a practicing physician, in addition to farming on a large scale. In 1717, he removed with his family to Lancaster county, where he had acquired large land holdings. Besides the two boys born in Switzerland, there were four sons and two daughters born to Henry Zimmermann and his wife in Pennsylvania. He died in 1749; his wife in 1742. He had accumulated wealth and become a respected citizen—the progenitor of thousands of descendants, some of whom also have made a mark for themselves, especially as physicians. It is reported that in the six generations following Henry Zimmermann, there always has been a Henry in direct line, although now named Carpenter.

As may be ascertained from the foregoing, Emanuel Zimmermann was four years old, when he arrived in Germantown with his parents in 1706; his brother Gabriel was two years his junior. Emanuel's father had taken special care that his children received careful schooling. Emanuel attended the schools of Germantown, and was tutored in both the German and English languages. He was an unusually bright and precocious boy and early showed a remarkable sense of justice and fine humanitarian traits. Thus it is reported of him that after his family's removal to Lancaster, when he was but a boy of fifteen, he drew up a memorial in behalf of the Amenish and Mennonite settlers in that section which was to be presented to William Penn. This memorial breathed the spirit of a William Tell. However, it never reached William Penn, who then was sojourning in England, and died a few months after the draft had been completed by Emanuel.

When a young man, Emanuel Zimmermann married Caroline Line (1701-1785), daughter of a German settler. They first resided in a log cabin situated on a farm he received from his father, not far from the site of the present City of Lancaster. While thus engaged in the main vocation of Colonial days, Emanuel used his spare time in reading, studying, and observing the living conditions of the peculiar mixture of people, of all religious creeds, whom William Penn's toleration and generosity had brought to Southeastern Pennsylvania.

In 1729, after he had become a permanent citizen of the province, his civic and political ability was recognized by appointment as Assessor and Constable of Cocalico Township. He was straightforward and honest. In 1735, followed his appointment of Justice of the Peace, to which, in 1747, was added the burden of Overseer of the Poor. In 1756, Emanuel Zimmermann was elected to the Provincial Assembly of Pennsylvania from Lancaster county, and was re-elected for sixteen years, until he petitioned to be relieved from this public service.

However, greater honors were bestowed upon him. The Crown, in 1759, recognizing his judicial ability, partly through his excellent service as a legislator, appointed him presiding Judge of the Court of Common Pleas of Lancaster county. He held this position for twenty years until his death in 1780.

During his life, he was a familiar and well-known figure, personally known to almost everybody. He lived on his farm outside the city; and on his trips to Lancaster to hold court, he was wont to ride his old horse, ''Baldface,'' and usually was accompanied by his dog, ''Penn.'' The three were a familiar group on the road in those days, being a signal to the residents that court was to be held on such days.

Emanuel Zimmermann was a close friend of Benjamin

Franklin and they mutually assisted each other in Colonial and Revolutionary matters. Indeed, when the spirit of the Revolution stirred the people to action, Emanuel became devoted to the cause of independence, in spite of the fact that he was holding office under the British Government. In 1775, he became one of the Associators, and as a member of the Committee of Safety in Pennsylvania, he exerted all his influence in favor of freedom.

In volume VII, page 152, of *Hazard's Register* (a publication of Colonial days), the following splendid tribute is paid to his character and ability as a legislator, jurist, and spokesman of the people:

> Emanuel Zimmermann was the most distinguished of all the early settlers. He possessed from nature an ardent love for liberty in every form—zealous and active in every pursuit. His mind was finely organized, and he enjoyed an unbounded influence over the whole settlement. Tunkers, Amenish, Lutherans, Calvinists, Mennonites—all applied to him on any emergency. He was possessed of as strong a constitution as an intellect. He lived beloved and died lamented by all denominations. He was in every sense an honest man—always just, liberal and tolerant. He was arbiter in all matters of dispute among his neighbors, and from his decisions they never appealed, such was the confidence in his integrity.

During his sixteen years of service in the Assembly of Pennsylvania, Zimmermann was a versatile and distinguished lawgiver. He was interested and well-informed in every phase of legislative enactments; he acted on many of the important committees, and often as chairman of such. He always was in sympathy with legislation for the welfare of the common people; his whole record as a lawgiver shows him to have been in favor of all progressive measures, and in furtherance of liberty and self-government. He was a born leader of the common people—an early-day Abraham Lincoln of Colonial Pennsylvania—endowed with the same inborn characteristics: intelligence, honesty, steadfastness of purpose, plain living and hard-thinking, and a capacity for mental work as a lawgiver and presiding judge, combined with rare intuitive discernment and a spirit of righteousness and toleration of the opinions of others, that are indeed astounding and call forth the admiration of all for such a remarkable man and noble character.

The non-English-speaking people of that part of southeastern Pennsylvania—and they were at times perhaps in the majority—had in Emanuel Zimmermann (Carpenter) a representative who understood their position and was able to interpret and articulate their wants and wishes to the representatives of the British Crown. He was their legal adviser; he acted as administrator and executor in the settlement of estates; he was their intellectual and political leader; and, finally, he embodied in his character and personality all the requisites of a practical lawgiver and wise statesman, in addition to his judicial discernment and the impartiality of his decisions while presiding judge of the Court of Common Pleas.

Indeed, Zimmermann was familiarly called "Judge" by all, and affectionately, "Manny, the Lawgiver." Of all foreign-born settlers of early Pennsylvania, whose mother-tongue was not English, he attained to the highest eminence. He was adored and revered by all the German-speaking elements, and respected and honored by the English-speaking British and American element as if he had been of their own nationality. In Zimmermann was embodied the culture of two nations; and these two variant elements in early Pennsylvania life found in Zimmermann the medium of understanding each other, thus adapting themselves so as to gradually weld into one nation and one people. Emanuel Zimmermann (Carpenter) was the father of five children: three daughters and two sons. His youngest son, Emanuel, Jr., distinguished himself in the Revolutionary War and won a captaincy; and at the conclusion of the struggle he also was appointed Judge of the Court of Common Pleas. In 1798, he emigrated to Ohio, where he again became a judge of common pleas of Fairfield county, and where he also distinguished himself in various walks of life.

A. R.

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JOHN MARTIN HENNI

Archbishop, Roman Catholic Church

Born in 1805, at Obersaxen, Canton of Grisons, Switzerland.
Died September 7, 1881, in Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

JOHN MARTIN HENNI received his education at the College of St. Gall, Switzerland, at the priests' seminary in Lucerne and, finally, at the ''Sapienza'' in Rome, where, at the age of twenty-two, he successfully passed the examination for the degree of doctor of philosophy. In company with Martin Kuendig, he came to the United States in 1828 and completed his theological studies at Bardstown, Kentucky, where he was ordained to the priesthood in the same year. Thereupon he taught philosophy at the newly-founded college, called ''Athenaeum,'' at the same place, simultaneously serving as pastor for the German-Catholic parish.

In 1829, Henni visited northern Ohio as a missionary, founding many Catholic parishes, notably in Cleveland, Akron, Massillon, Wooster, New Philadelphia, and Zanesville. At Canton, Ohio, he established a flourishing congregation and became its pastor and teacher.

Henni was recalled to Cincinnati in 1833 and appointed Vicar-General of the diocese. Then he opened the first German parochial school in Cincinnati, and organized the German St. Aloysius Orphan Society, the first of its kind in the United States. Furthermore, Henni founded the first German Catholic paper, *Der Wahrheitsfreund,* in 1843, which he also edited.

As early as 1835, Henni had gone abroad in behalf of his parish. He previously had published a historical review of the Catholic Church in America, particularly of the Diocese of Cincinnati; this appeared in print in St. Gall in the same year. Four years later, Henni also published a short history of the City of Cincinnati.

A tract of land was purchased by Henni in 1843 in Covington, Kentucky, opposite Cincinnati, for the purpose of establishing a clerical seminary. He went to Baltimore, Maryland, and secured the approval of the Catholic Council in session there for his project. Soon after, he was appointed Bishop of the newly-created Diocese of Milwaukee. When he arrived in that city in 1844, the entire Catholic population of the new diocese comprised about 8,000 souls, administered to by not more than five or six priests. Bishop Henni's cathedral consisted of a frame building, 40x30 feet. But in the wake of the settlement of Wisconsin, thousands of Catholics were among the first immigrants. Bishop Henni knew how to attract them; in 1867, his Diocese of Milwaukee contained 250,000 adherents, one of the most flourishing in the country.

His long cherished plan to found a German seminary for aspirants to the priesthood was carried out by Bishop Henni in the years of 1854 to 1856. In connection therewith, he established a teachers' seminary in accordance with the normal schools of Germany (Pio Nono College). Another of his worthy accomplishments was the founding of a deaf and dumb institution.

In 1875, his services were rewarded by appointment as Archbishop of Milwaukee. Through his zeal, and the continued good he did in behalf of his diocese and church, he was revered by his adherents and highly respected by people of different religious denominations and beliefs, and a credit to his high office. He died September 7, 1881.

B. B.

FATHER MARTIN KUENDIG

Hero of the Cholera Epidemic in Detroit, Michigan

Born in 1805, in Schwyz, Switzerland.
Died March 6, 1879, in Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

MARTIN KUENDIG was the child of poor parents. He attended the elementary schools of his native town, Schwyz, and afterwards graduated from the college connected with the abbey of Einsiedeln nearby. Later, he studied theology and philosophy in Lucerne, whereupon he entered the "Sapienza" in Rome, where his friend and colleague, John Martin Henni (later Archbishop of Milwaukee), also was at the same time finishing his studies. Here he met the Vicar-General of the Diocese of Cincinnati, who induced him and Henni to come to the United States. He was ordained to the priesthood in 1829, and received his first charge as assistant priest of St. Ann's parish in Detroit, afterwards being appointed parish priest of Holy Trinity Church.

The fame of Father Kuendig as a fine and noble character and a servant of humanity was established and came to the fore during the cholera epidemic in Detroit in 1834. George Catlin in his volume *The Story of Detroit,* illumines this by devoting to him the following chapter:

> A building on the North side of Cadillac Square was purchased by the Second Catholic Church, known as Holy Trinity, with Father Martin Kuendig, as a priest of the parish. Father Kuendig was of powerful physique, enormous industry and inexhaustible philanthropy, to whom the city of Detroit owes a monument to commemorate his heroic public service in a time which tried men's souls. His fame began in the year 1834 when he opened Holy Trinity Church as a hospital, for it was then that the second cholera epidemic came to scourge Detroit and to terrorize the surrounding country.
>
> Father Kuendig tore up the benches in his church, built a partition across the middle to separate the men patients from the women and organized it as a hospital. He induced about twenty-five of the young women of his congregation to enlist as nurses. He also enlisted an Irish ditch-digger, named John Canaan, to act as official grave digger and procured a horse and two-wheeled cart for him with which to gather up the sick and bring them to his church and to carry away the dead each morning from the improvised hospital and the homes about town. It is said that in the worst period of the plague the total deaths in one day numbered thirty-six.

Following the cholera the city was burdened with many invalids, widows and orphans and the poorhouse was utilized to its capacity. Father Kuendig took pains to search out the needy and he was appointed supervisor of the poor in the fall of 1834. The county allowed him 16 cents a day for the care of the inmates, but the actual cost was about double that amount, for provisions were hard to get and labor was scarce owing to the departure of many people from the city. There were more than one hundred inmates of the poorhouse and sixty of those were invalids. Firewood was needed but the ground was so soft between the county poorhouse and the woods on the northern end of the farm that a horse could hardly drag more than an empty cart. To remedy this difficulty Father Kuendig had a sort of log tramway laid, which served its purpose well.

Father Kuendig did not limit his expenditures to the public allowance, but spent his own money for supplies. When that was gone he ran in debt personally for them. In 1837 his resources and credit were exhausted and there were three hundred poor to be cared for, so the county raised his allowance to 22 cents a day. But none of the money was paid to him. It was given in the form of county warrants and the priest in using them in trade was forced to accept a discount of 40 to 60%.

In 1838 his creditors descended upon the poorhouse en masse and literally stripped the building, taking beds from the sick in order to satisfy their demands. They also took over all of Father Kuendig's personal belongings from his house, leaving him as poor as his charges. Years later the state of Michigan was shamed into awarding him $3,000 compensation, but that was only a fraction of his debt incurred in behalf of the helpless poor. The case of the children in the poorhouse was pitiful, but the creditors of Father Kuendig were so eager for their money that some of them seized all the clothing of the orphans that was not on their backs.

Soon after the close of 1842 Father Kuendig left Detroit under a cloud of debt to take a parish in Milwaukee. There he was better appreciated and rose to the rank of vicar-general. This enabled him in later years to pay off all his Detroit obligations out of his salary—and the people of Detroit permitted him to do so.

The services of Father Martin Kuendig to the people of Detroit during the cholera epidemic of 1834, and following that as supervisor of the poor and manager of the county poor farm, have never been properly appreciated. The first pastor of Holy Trinity Church was a man of stalwart frame, resolute, resourceful and fearless in the midst of panic. The physicians of Detroit worked night and day but there were no nurses to keep up treatment after the doctors had left to hurry to the next sufferer. So Father Kuendig organized a Catholic Women's Association for nursing the sick and caring for children suddenly orphaned by the plague. For such children it was necessary to provide temporary homes and care. Some were housed in the county poorhouse on Gratiot Avenue and others placed in an abandoned building, under care of the young women of the Catholic Women's Association. Out of the association and the common necessity came the organization known as St. Vincent's Female Orphan Home. There were a considerable number of German Catholics in the city. For the benefit of these Father Kuendig began conducting services in St. Ann's and preaching in the German language in 1833.

B. B.

PHILIP SCHAFF

Professor of Theology and Historian

Born January 1, 1819, at Chur, Grisons, Switzerland.
Died October 20, 1893, in New York.

PHILIP SCHAFF, whose name originally was written Schaf, was born January 1, 1819, at Chur, Grisons, Switzerland, the ancient Curia Rhaetorum of the Romans. His parents were classed as poor, and his father died while Philip was still in his infancy. His mother, a farmer's daughter of Zizers, a small village near Chur, was a woman of robust physique, a characteristic which her son inherited from her and which during his lifetime enabled him to overcome more than the average amount of labor and difficulties.

The boy went through the regular course of the schools of his native town and learned to use fluently the three languages spoken in the Canton of Graubündten (Grisons), namely, German, Italian, and Romansch. At the age of fourteen, he earned part of his living by giving private lessons. On the advice of the Reverend Paul Kind of Chur, who took a great interest in the education of this precocious and bright lad, he was sent in 1834 to the renowned academy for boys in Kronthal, Württemberg, Germany, to continue his studies.

From there he entered the Gymnasium (college) at Stuttgart, and in due time the universities of Tübingen, Halle,[1] and Berlin.[2] Here he became acquainted with his countryman Frederic Godet, of Neuchâtel, and later his intimate friend. Godet was the tutor of the late Emperor Frederick III of Germany. Philip Schaff always appreciated the thorough schooling he received in Germany, and described himself to the end of his days as ''A Swiss by birth, a German by education, and an American by choice.''

While lecturing as ''privat-dozent'' (unsalaried professor)

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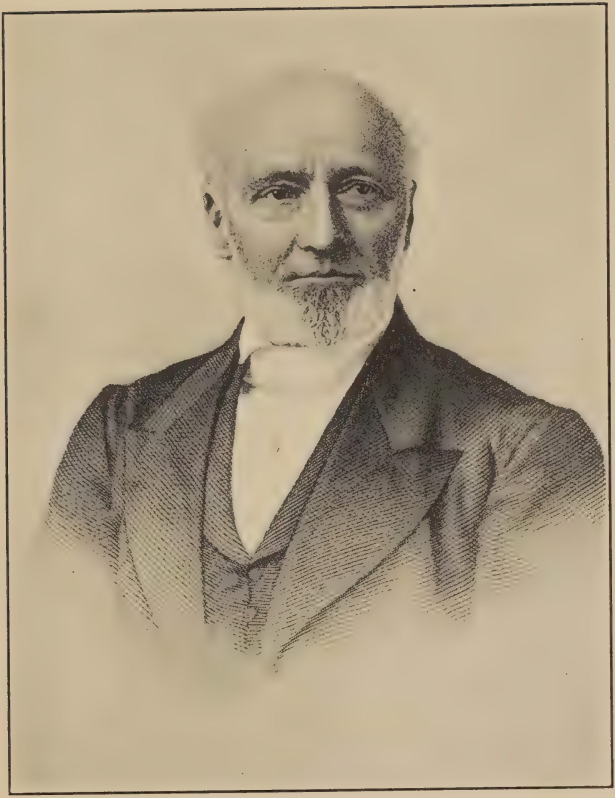
[1] At Halle he met his first American acquaintance, George Lewis Prentiss, afterwards his lifelong friend. Here he also was on intimate terms with Julius Müller and Tholuck.

[2] At Berlin, he was attracted by Neander, whose amanuensis he was for a time.



PHILIP SCHAFF

at the University of Berlin, Schaff received a flattering offer as professor of Church History and Biblical Literature in the Theological Seminary of the Reformed Church at Mercersburg, Pennsylvania, the post being tendered him by unanimous vote of the board of regents. After a most solemn ordination in the City of Elberfeld, the stronghold of the Reformed Church in Germany, he crossed the Atlantic in July, 1844.

For nearly twenty years, Schaff taught at the Theological Seminary at Mercersburg. At the same time, he wrote and published a number of excellent volumes on theological subjects, most of which were written in German, and subsequently translated into English. Through them, Philip Schaff became known throughout the world as a proficient exponent of Church History and Evangelical Theology. At Mercersburg, he added to scholarly attainments and religious fervor, wise theological judgment, a faculty for adapting himself to new conditions and entering heartily in the republican forms of the Western world.

For a number of years, he published a popular periodical in German, known as *Deutscher Kirchenfreund* (German Friend of the Church). He was the author of *Christlicher Katechismus* (Christian Catechism), and in 1859 he published his *Deutsches Gesangbuch* (German Hymn Book), which became the official hymn book of the German Reformed Church of the United States. The latter also has been made use of in a number of other churches.

During the Civil war, the Theological Seminary at Mercersburg was compelled to close its doors. While Mercersburg was not directly within the belt of the battlefields, it was very close to it. Its inhabitants constantly were exposed to raids by the Confederate forces and, bad as these conditions were, Philip Schaff held that the rumors of war which were ever present, were even worse than war itself.

In June, 1863, the seminary closed its doors, partly because it was utterly impossible to study under the growing excitement of a community stricken with the panic of invasion; and partly because the teaching staff itself felt that it had no right to detain the students when the nation called them to the defense of the Union. On June 16th, of that year, Dr. Schaff made the following entry in his diary:

> We advise the students to act as patriots and to enlist in the service of their native state to expel the invaders; for what good are seminaries and colleges and churches if we have no country and no homes?

After the Battle of Gettysburg (July 3, 1863), the seminary buildings were turned into a hospital for Confederate soldiers. At that time, Dr. Schaff wrote:

> This is a novel chapter in the history of the seminary, and one full of sad interest. Charity and curiosity were busy in providing for the prisoners an abundance of food and attention, which seemed to fill them with delight and gratitude. One colonel from North Carolina remarked: 'Your kindness makes it almost a luxury to be a prisoner here.' This speaks well for this place, which has suffered such heavy losses during the last few weeks from rebel guerillas and now turns around without a murmur to nurse their sick and wounded.

As the seminary was closed, Dr. Schaff removed to New York. Here, for a period of six years, he served as secretary for the New York Sabbath Committee, and in 1870 he accepted the professorship of Theological Encyclopædia and Christian Symbolism at the famous Union Seminary of New York. He held this chair until his death in 1893, at the same time writing and lecturing in the interest of the Church Universal. It was due to him that the sixth conference of the Evangelical Alliance, which was attended by representative clergymen from all continents, was held in New York in 1873.

Dr. Schaff was one of the founders of the Council of the Reformed Churches, commonly called the Pan-Presbyterian Council, the first session of which was held in Edinburgh, Scotland, in July, 1877. He took a great interest in the Parliament of Religions held in connection with the Columbian Exposition in Chicago in 1893. Though suffering greatly under failing health, he composed an elaborate paper on the *Reunion of Christendom,* and went to Chicago to deliver it, very much against the wishes of his physicians and friends. He overtaxed his strength. His address at the parliament was set for September 25. He was present at the meeting, but due to his health, had to consent that some one else read the paper for him.

He returned to New York a very sick man, and though he found it possible to lecture before his class, this lecture was to be his last. He was compelled to remain at home, and in the early morning of October 20, 1893, he departed this life at the ripe age of nearly 75 years.

His address on "The Principles of Protestantism" elaborated the two principles of Protestantism and the two dangers to which Protestantism is exposed: sectarianism and rationalism.

Schaff advocated the American view of Sunday observance as opposed to the Continental. In Stuttgart, during a visit (1865), he advocated and organized the first American Sunday School. His connection with the revision of the English Bible began in 1870. By invitation of the British committee, he selected a representative committee of American scholars. He was indefatigable in procuring hearty and sympathetic co-operation between the British and American committees.

A work in which Schaff was pre-eminent was as mediator between German theology and Church life, and the English-speaking public. He represented the Evangelical type of German theology, and his thorough acquaintance with all types of German thought, coupled with his personal intimacy with many of the leading German scholars, enabled him to interpret German theology with authority. His clear style and mastery of both German and English furthered his influence. Likewise, through his visits, his lectures, and writings in religious publications, he was the chief interpreter of American religious thought to the German religious public.

This intermediary relationship was recognized on both sides of the Atlantic, and in the address presented to him by the theological faculty of Berlin University in 1892, on the fiftieth anniversary of his career as teacher, and, because of his services to Biblical scholarship, he was compared to Martin Butzer, who had carried the learning of the Continent to England in the time of the Reformation.

Schaff's most fruitful study was Church history. He followed his "Apostolic Church" with a history of the institution down to the year 1073 and, passing over the intervening period, brought out two rich volumes on the German and Swiss Reformation, respectively. He originated the American Society of Church History (1888), and arranged for the authorship and publication by it of the *American Church History Series.* Schaff edited the series of *Nicene and post-Nicene Fathers* (28 volumes). He also edited the first edition of the *Schaff-Herzog Religious Encyclopedia* (3 volumes), republished as the New Schaff-Herzog Encyclopedia in twelve volumes (1886).

The inscription on his tombstone presents the salient features of his career:

> A Teacher of Theology for 50 years; Historian of the Church; President of American Committee of Bible Revision; He Advocated the Reunion of Christendom.

Schaff regarded love as the central principle of theology, and, with a tolerant mind which sacrificed none of the fundamental tenets of his own Reformed faith, he labored for fellowship and co-operation of all classes of Christian believers among the Greek and Roman Catholics, as well as among the numerous communions of Protestants. His last confession was: ''I am a sinner and place my trust in my Savior who died for me.''

Dr. Schaff found it very easy to become an American citizen and to identify himself with American institutions. He ascribed this to the training he had received in Switzerland. A quotation from his autobiography may serve to illustrate this point:

> In many respects, America is an enlarged Switzerland. On my arrival here I found it much easier to fall in line with American institutions and to feel at home in this country than the immigrants from imperial Germany, who are apt to retain either a preference for a more centralized form of government, or more frequently to run into an excess of democracy. . . . Restraint of individual freedom, regard for law and customs, self-government and discipline are indispensable to the permanency and prosperity of a republic. . . . Take these away and our liberty will soon degenerate into anarchy or military despotism.

Though Dr. Schaff became an American of the Americans, he never forgot the land of his birth, and always spoke of it with love and admiration. In 1854, he remarked after returning from his first visit to Switzerland:

> When I got over the line in Switzerland I fell down and kissed the earth of this dear land of freedom—my own fatherland. Oh, how well I felt! A pure air from heaven seemed to come down softly upon me. All the opening landscapes, every object seemed to be clothed about by some pure heavenly spirit with a superior drapery from above. And then, how I delighted in our mountains towering up to heaven! How they take hold of the deepest feelings of the soul, and how clearly they teach us littleness, yea, our nothingness!

He visited Switzerland again and again, and the year before he died he wrote to a dear friend: ''I feel prostrate from the heat and am weary of work. Had I wings I would fly to the mountains of Switzerland.''

C. V.

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MICHAEL SCHLATTER

Eminent Theologian; Founder of the Reformed Church in America

Born July 14, 1716, in St. Gall, Switzerland.
Died November 1, 1790, at Chestnut Hill, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

REVEREND MICHAEL SCHLATTER, from both the paternal and maternal sides belonged to prominent families of the famous abbey city of Switzerland. His father, Paul Schlatter, was a bookkeeper; his mother was Magdalene (Zollikoffer) Schlatter. His grandfather, Reverend Michael Schlatter, after whom he was named, was head of the Reformed Church of St. Gall.

Little is known of his early life, except that he attended the cantonal school and gymnasium (college) of his home city. Like so many of his countrymen, he yearned to see the world, and, while still a youth, and to appease his "wanderlust," he left St. Gall without the knowledge or consent of his parents, and roamed from one university to another in Germany and Holland.

After satisfying his curiosity in this respect, he returned to St. Gall, finished his theological and philosophical studies under Professor Caspar Weglin, and passed his examination for admittance to the ministry, April 10, 1739.

At the time, the Canton of St. Gall was so well supplied with ministers that aspirants for a vicarage often had to wait for ten years or more before being permanently placed. Under these circumstances, young Schlatter decided to try his luck in Holland, the language of which country he had acquired while sojourning there. Here, for a time, he filled a position as private tutor. In 1744, he went back to Switzerland, served for a year as vicar at Wigoltingen, Canton of Thurgau, and for a few months as the Sunday evening preacher of the Reformed Church at Linzebuehl, the southern suburb of St. Gall.

His restless nature, however, soon impelled him to suddenly leave on January 9, 1746. Wandering from place to place, he heard, while in Heidelberg, of an appeal of the deputies of the

Reformed Church of Holland for ministers, who would be willing to go to the American colony of Pennsylvania and preach the gospel to the scattered members of the Reformed Church. As such a mission appealed to his longing for adventure, he immediately went to Holland and presented himself to the deputies on March 15, 1746.

For almost twenty years, the Reformed Church in Holland had endeavored to supply ministers and money to the members of the Reformed faith, who mostly were Germans from the Palatinate and the Rhine country. They did this at the request of the consistory of the Palatinate in Heidelberg which, due to the devastation of their country by Louis XIV of France, were unable to do anything for their co-religionists in America.

What the Reformed Church of Holland was anxious to do at this time, was not only to procure a man who could preach to his fellow countrymen in the German language, but who could also organize the various small congregations that were scattered throughout the Pennsylvania section, and induce them to affiliate in a corporate body or synod, well knowing that only in this manner would they be able to grow and become permanently established. After a thorough examination as to his character, his qualifications, and his motives, Reverend Schlatter received the appointment.

Schlatter left Amsterdam on June 3, 1746, and after a perilous voyage landed in Boston, August 4. Upon his arrival, he went to New York, and after waiting there for his baggage for three weeks, he proceeded to Philadelphia, where he arrived September 6, 1746.

The Germans of Pennsylvania were not of Dutch speech or nationality. They had not been trained to acknowledge the national confessions of the Netherlands. Consequently, a man was needed who was willing to be the confidential agent of the Dutch synods, and at the same time serve as a personal link between the co-religionists of the Old and the New World. There was, therefore, great rejoicing when this young Swiss minister appeared and offered to undertake the work.

From the start, Reverend Schlatter manifested extraordinary energy in his work. With the impulsiveness characteristic of him, he entered upon his duties. He traveled mostly on horseback, and within a year he had organized thirteen pastoral charges in Eastern Pennsylvania, and adjacent counties of New Jersey and Maryland. He visited the scattered congregations, preached to them, baptized the children, and administered or celebrated communion to those who were without ordained ministers. He hoped, in time, to build up the congregations and supply them with ministers.

In order to accomplish this in the shortest time possible, he summoned a conference in Philadelphia on September 29, 1747, and organized the Reformed Synod of America. Four ministers and twenty-eight elders from twelve different congregations were in attendance. As Michael Schlatter was the man who inspired and proposed this first conference of the Reformed Church in America, he has been honored in American history as the "Father of the Reformed Church in America."

As proof of his untiring energy, it may be stated that during the years 1747-51, he traveled more than 8,000 miles, and preached 635 sermons to scattered congregations in the three states above mentioned. In October, 1747, he married Maria H. Schleydorn, a daughter of one of his church elders.

The many excellent qualities of Schlatter as a minister and missionary of and for his church, also had their drawbacks. Because he accomplished so much, he expected others to do the same. Complaints were made that he was autocratic, yes, even despotic. These accusations reached the deputies in Holland. Schlatter appeared before them in May, 1751. He was exonerated, however, and at the same time received the approval of the church in Holland.

He next made an earnest appeal for financial assistance to the Reformed Churches of Holland, Germany, and Switzerland, as well as for additional ministers for the struggling congregations in America. His request was well received in Holland and Germany; but in Switzerland, little help was given on the pretext that the Swiss emigrants who had gone to Pennsylvania had treated the decrees of the various Reformed Cantons with contempt, by leaving the home country, and that assistance rendered them might be construed as an approval of their conduct.

Though Schlatter's trip to Europe had been of great benefit to the Reformed Churches in Pennsylvania, he having obtained about £12,000, some thousands of Bibles, and six young ministers for the congregations, animosities against him continued. One Reverend J. C. Steiner, who had come from Zürich, Switzerland, succeeded in splitting Schlatter's congregation when a faction chose Steiner as their minister.

In 1754, Schlatter again went to Europe, this time also visiting England. Here he was promised some funds, but with the proviso that English schools be organized among his parishioners which were to be called charity schools. The Society for the Propagation of the Knowledge of God Among the Germans appealed to the British Government for the establishment of schools in Pennsylvania, pointing out that if these Germans were left to themselves without help, they might become the easy prey of the French, in the event of a war in America between France and England. Quite a large sum of money was collected, the King himself subscribing $5,000 for this purpose.

Schlatter then returned to America with the consent of the deputies of the Reformed Church in Holland. He soon tired of the bickerings and insinuations against him and resigned his pastorate in 1755, after which he was induced to become superintendent of the charity schools in Philadelphia. With his usual zeal and untiring energy, he organized a number of charity schools in Eastern Pennsylvania, which were well attended for a number of years. In time, however, there arose a determined opposition to them, due to the fact that all instruction was in the English language, and, in 1756, Schlatter resigned his commission as superintendent. After he left, the schools were fast passing out of existence.[1]

The struggle between England and France for the possession of Canada and the Western territories began in 1754, and lasted until 1763, and, in the meantime, brought Schlatter a new appointment. Because of his ability to speak several languages, he was made chaplain of the Royal American Regiment in the British army, a military unit composed largely of German and Swiss immigrants. In 1763, at the conclusion of peace, he accompanied the battalion of his famous countryman, General Henry Bouquet, to deliver Fort Pitt (Pittsburgh) from the Indians, and no doubt was present at the terrific encounter with the Indians at Bushy Run on August 5, 1763.

When peace had been completely restored, he settled on a farm at Chestnut Hill, about ten miles from Philadelphia. During the Revolutionary war, Schlatter strongly sided with the American patriots. When the British captured Philadelphia and the surrounding country, he was made prisoner and his home plundered by the British soldiers. The war left him comparatively poor. He sold his farm and bought a small house in the vicinity. There he lived in quiet retirement, occasionally preaching and officiating at marriages and funerals. He died November 1, 1790, and was buried in the Reformed burial ground at Philadelphia.

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[1] A fund of approximately $500, left in the hands of the trustees, was handed over in 1770 to the trustees of the Academy and College of Philadelphia. As these schools were the forerunners of the present University of Pennsylvania, the history of the closing of the charity schools movement thus became closely identified with the history of this famous institution.

An American biographer has made the following evaluation of his character:

> No searcher for wealth, no enthusiast in scientific exploration, endured more hardships or encountered more dangers than did Schlatter as a devoted missionary in his unwearied work of service and labor of love.
>
> Schlatter's zeal was not without knowledge, and his tact and good sense carried him safely through trials and persecutions which would have overwhelmed a man of less balance of mind and correctness of deportment. It is said of him that 'he was fond of order and had the power and tact of organization in an eminent degree.' He was prompt and punctual in his appointments, careful and exact in all his business. He was a man of fervent piety and insisted upon a personal experience of the power of the truth. Though carrying in his heart the burden of all the churches he could be in the social circle free, familiar and full of vivacity and cheerfulness.

C. V.

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JOHN JOACHIM ZUBLY

Member of the Continental Congress; Prominent Clergyman

Born August 27, 1724, at St. Gall, Switzerland.
Died July 23, 1781, in Savannah, Georgia.

THE absence of reliable data on Zubly's youth deprives us of giving a description of his early life in Switzerland. Certain it is that he was ordained to the ministry on August 19, 1744, and in 1746 was married to Anna Tobler in Switzerland.

The exact date of his arrival in America, also, is not known, but we find that on April 25, 1758 he received and accepted a call from Savannah, Georgia, where he officiated as the first regular pastor of the Presbyterian Church, now the Independent Presbyterian Church of that city, preaching in English. To one neighboring congregation he preached in German, and to another in French. Previous to this appointment, he was stationed at Wando Neck, South Carolina, to which place he went on arriving in America. He was a clergyman of marked ability, eloquence and learning. A rigid disciple of the Swiss reformers, Zwingli and Calvin, he was tireless in the discharge of his professional duties. Under his guidance, his Church became the most popular within the limits of Georgia. In 1770 he was honored by the College of New Jersey, now Princeton University, with the degree of Doctor of Divinity.

So popular was Zubly as a preacher, and so acceptable were his ministrations, that he soon attracted many of the leading citizens of that vicinity. So universal were his views, so pronounced his interests in public affairs, and so manifest his sympathies with the protestants against the arbitrary Acts of the English Parliament, that his influence as a citizen and a lover of liberty, was perceived far beyond the limits of his congregation. In recognition of his attainments, he was elected a delegate to the Provincial Congress, which assembled in Savannah on the 4th of July, 1775. At the opening of that Congress he delivered a memorial sermon on American affairs, entitled: *The Law of Liberty.* When this oration was prepared for publication in Philadelphia, it was prefaced by a forcible and conclusive plea for the liberties of America, and was embodied in a communication addressed by Zubly to the Right Honorable the Earl of Dartmouth, who at that time was British Secretary of State for the American department. He emphatically denounced the suggestions made in England of arming the slaves to bring the southern provinces to obedience.

At the commencement of the controversies between England and her American Colonies, Dr. Zubly took a decisive stand with the latter. Such was the confidence of the people of Georgia in his intelligence and patriotism, that he was appointed a delegate to the Continental Congress in association with John Houstoun, Archibald Bullock, Noble W. Jones and Dr. Lyman Hall.

This body placed Dr. Zubly on four important committees—one to prepare a petition to the king "Upon the present unhappy situation of affairs"; another, to address a letter to the President of the Continental Congress, acquainting him fully with the proceedings of the Provincial Congress of his home colony; a third to frame an address to His Excellency, the Royal Governor, Sir James Wright, and a fourth, to constitute a Committee of Intelligence.

In his address, he showed how earnestly at this stage of his career, his sympathies were enlisted in behalf of the colonists' freedom. Of the early activity of Dr. Zubly in the cause of freedom, education, and religion, we can but speak with praise. His course in the first Continental Congress was consistent and patriotic. His voice and pen were freely employed in the vindication of the right of the Colonies against the encroachments of the English Parliament. When, however, at a subsequent session of the Continental Congress, he found himself confronted with a determination on the part of its members to sever the ties binding the Colonies with the mother country, and to erect on these shores a separate, independent, and republican confederation, he revealed unequivocally the fact, that his conception of freedom, was in the form as British subjects, (an attitude which at that time still was widely assumed), and not as a severed and independent political body. When he afterwards vehemently disapproved a republican form of government, (an incomprehensible attitude for a son of Mother Helvetia, who gave birth to the oldest existing republic), he excited suspicion and, from then on was closely watched.

One of his supposedly treasonable letters was seized and brought to the notice of the Congress, upon which Zubly hastily abandoned his seat and departed for Georgia, taking sides with the Tories. In 1777, he was banished, and half of his estate confiscated.

He now sought refuge in South Carolina, and remained there until 1779, when the Royal Government of Georgia was temporarily re-established. He then returned to Savannah and resumed his ministerial duties but he was broken in heart and fortune, and the remaining years of his life were embittered by a ceaseless struggle.

When the occasion for that bitterness of sentiments, which characterized the conflict, had subsided, and when, in calmer times, his actions again were judged as those of a man who acted under strong convictions, his memory was revered even by those against whom at the time he particularly had taken his alleged treasonable stand.

A. Ba.

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HENRY LOUIS BOUQUET

Early Colonial Soldier

Born about 1714, possibly in Lyons, France.
Died August 23, 1765, at Pensacola, Florida.

HENRY LOUIS BOUQUET was born about 1714,[1] possibly in Lyons, France. Giving free reins to his unusually strong desire for the military profession, he simply followed a long established and firmly rooted practise of his home country, in pledging the major part of one's life to military services of foreign potentates. In doing so, he preferred to live the adventurous life of a soldier, rather than to submit himself to the peaceful and uneventful existence in a country, that was, at that time, far from treating its citizens on an equal footing.

Being a native of the French-speaking portion of Switzerland, but of Protestant faith, he was tempted to turn his eyes towards Protestant sovereigns. At a young age, we find him already in the service of the States-General of Holland. After a short intermission of service in the army of the King of Sardinia, he was called back to Holland by the Prince of Orange. At the age of 29, this young Swiss was brevetted a lieutenant colonel and, at the same time, appointed commander of the Swiss Guards. Henry Bouquet, not yet having found the object of his ambition, in 1755 entered the service of the British Crown. The hostilities that had just opened in the New World, between England and France, induced the military authorities of England to employ as many capable officers and engineers as possible, irrespective of their nationalities. This sudden influx of intelligent and ardent officers, predominantly of Protestant faith, into the British Colonies of North America, was a very ingenious measure, taken for this emergency. About half a dozen highly capable officers from the French-speaking section of Switzerland responded to the call. Many of them climbed to top ranks while in the service of the British in the American Colonies and in Canada.

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[1] In the endeavor to establish the facts of both the date and place of Bouquet's birth, extended investigations were made. Inquiry at Rolle, canton of Vaud, the home of the Bouquet family, led to further researches at the cantonal archives in Lausanne which revealed that Bouquet's father had established himself in business at Lyons, France. The absence of Bouquet's name in the church registers at Rolle points to the probability that he was born at Lyons. Although the investigations at Lyons made especially at our request by Mr. Heriot, mayor of the city, yielded no positive results, this assumption is not weakened, for, as a Protestant in a Catholic community it is likely almost certain that his birth was not entered in the church registers of Lyons.

In 1756, Lieutenant Colonel Bouquet arrived in America. At first he was assigned to the first battalion of the 60th Regiment, the so-called Royal Americans. This 60th Regiment consisted of elements of English, Scotch, Irish, German, Dutch, and Swiss nationalities. Colonel Bouquet, with his remarkable linguistic abilities, succeeded in welding those heterogeneous forces into a well-disciplined and worthy body of fighters. His personality must have entered very strongly into this formative process.

In 1758, he participated in the advance of a huge army of British and Colonial troops against Fort Duquesne. This fortification, at the confluence of the Monongahela and Allegheny rivers, which from here on form the Ohio, already had been evacuated by the French garrison, when the British vanguard reached the place on November 25, 1758. The ashes still were smoldering when the foundations for a new fort were laid, which, upon completion, was named Fort Pitt, in honor of the foremost British statesman of that time. In this quiet and uneventful march through the wilderness, Bouquet had ample opportunity to acquaint himself with the new methods of strategy in these wooded tracts. His keen eye very closely observed the contingent of the Cherokee Indians, who, at this stage of the campaign, had confederated themselves with the British against the French. And, as an officer whose duty it was to sense the great strategic connections, he at once grasped the importance of Fort Pitt. He listened eagerly and with an open mind, to the different suggestions with reference to the best approach to Fort Pitt. The great landowners of Virginia, who, in 1748, formed the Ohio Company for the express purpose of exploiting and taking possession of large tracts of land in the Valley of the Ohio, emphasized the approach from Cumberland, Maryland.

It was as a result of Colonel Bouquet's memorable march on the scarcely marked trail from Bedford to Fort Ligonier—Bushy Run, that this route was made the chief approach to the Gate City of the West. Thanks to his decisive military achievement, countless caravans found this road a safe route to the West.

Long after the last shot of the French Indian wars had been fired, long after the complete evacuation of the French field troops and garrisons from Canada and the territory west of the Mississippi river had taken place, the status of the Indians under

British rule was by no means clearly defined. After the signing of the Treaty of Paris in 1763, the home government, in order to gain the good will of the prairie Indians, hastened to take appropriate measures. The redskins, who had been left undisturbed in their natural inclinations while under the French regime, dreaded the indomitable westward rush of the settlers of the British Colonies. While a general demobilization of the troops was taking place in the colonies, east of the Alleghanies, preparations were being made by the Indians for the purpose of pushing back the settlers of the British Colonies. The inevitable was to happen in spite of the good will and obliging understanding on the part of the British Parliament. It was regretful that such a decision did not reach the Indians sooner.

To have sacrificed everything in a defensive position in which the cruelty of the raiders surpassed every record, and to have led a bloodless but tactful offensive into the enemy's land, constitute the crowning and outstanding achievement of Colonel Bouquet's career, in the British Colonies of North America.

The Pontiac conspiracy was destined at an unexpected moment to strike a blow from which the white man never was to recover. In a series of secret gatherings of practically all Indian tribes, there was in the process of elaboration a gigantic plan of almost continental span. All the chieftains were to unite together for the purpose of driving the English into the sea. Pontiac, who knew only too well the strength of the British soldiers, contented himself with the idea of driving the English settlers out of the Alleghanies, in order to restore the French dominion in the West.

In the spring of 1763, a simultaneous attack on the forts and stockades along the whole line, from the lakes to the lower Mississippi, was to mark the beginning of this tremendous onslaught. Of a dozen strongholds only Forts Detroit, Niagara, and Pitt still remained in the hands of the respective garrisons. Several relief expeditions had met with complete annihilation. When sporadic, but not less cruel intrusions reached Carlisle, Pennsylvania, 150 miles from Philadelphia, the consensus of public opinion was that something had to be done to restore the lost prestige of the frontier settlements and the white man in general.

The headquarters of the military authorities made speedy efforts to cope with this critical situation. Colonel Bouquet was immediately sent with a relief force to Fort Pitt then under the command of Captain Simon Ecuyer, a compatriot of his, who fought so valiantly at Quebec.

On his way to Bedford and thence to Fort Ligonier, Colonel Bouquet was enabled to gather authentic information as to the character and extent of this atrocious Indian warfare. He proceeded with the utmost precaution, anticipating more than mere skirmishes. In forced marches, his army reached Fort Ligonier. In his clear and concise reports, he tells of the brief rest periods accorded his troops, of the anxious nights spent in unknown regions, and of the strict measures invoked for vigilance while in camp. Campaigning in those primordial wooded tracts, valleys, ravines, swamps, with the constant thought in mind of meeting a band of Indians at every turn of the road, shooting from the trees or from behind rocks, or out of the thicket, was no easy task, and especially for one who had been trained in the European school of tactics. The frequent lack of refreshments and relief for the sick, in no small degree affected the morale of the troops.

This was the country, where victories were not decisive, but defeats ruinous. In such an undertaking, every nerve and every muscle were put to the severest trial, and every exertion of courage and address was called upon. But in this feeling of personal importance and responsibility, the heart of Colonel Bouquet experienced a thrill which, in turn, reacted upon his imagination.

At Fort Ligonier, he left all his wagons and heavy war material. With about 350 horses and enough cattle, Colonel Bouquet set out for Fort Pitt. No news had reached him from the latter place, since the scouts or express riders either were killed or obliged to return. At Fort Ligonier, his regular force was joined by thirty backwoodsmen, who were to serve as scouts and flankers. During the last lap of the journey, this able Colonial officer had a very reliable scout and adviser in Andrew Byerly, a German baker, who had established a relay station and trading post at Bushy Run. Byerly was ably assisted in this rude frontier life by his wife, who was a Swiss by birth. Her maiden name was Beatrice Guldin. One night, while her husband was burying a neighbor who had been felled by a redskin's tomahawk, a friendly Indian, whom the kind-hearted woman had served with many a bowl of milk, advised her of the rapid approach of a band of Indians, who were under orders to kill every white person they encountered. After having given her husband due warning, she saddled a horse and undertook the long journey to Fort Ligonier, thirty miles away.

Colonel Bouquet mapped out his route—dangerous defiles were to be passed under the cover of darkness. He was fully aware of the supreme importance of this march through the wilderness. What a striking contrast between this armed body of scarcely 500 men and the huge army of 10,000 led by General Forbes in the year 1758! In earlier days, certain Indian tribes had even affiliated themselves with the British, but, in 1763, not a single Indian was willing to side with Bouquet's men. The prestige of the white man was at stake, in the embodiment of this relief corps, as well as in the garrison of Fort Pitt. The success of this memorable march would determine whether or not the westward movement of the colonists was to be retarded.

Up to noon on August 5, 1763, the steady advance made by the troops had been most satisfactory to the commander. Byerly, his principal scout and adviser, already had assured him that Bushy Run, the next halting place, was only a mile away. The troops had marched seventeen miles, over an untrodden path and were eager to reach the day's destination, where a fresh supply of water could be obtained, when, all of a sudden, a well-rested and warlike Indian mass rushed upon the thirsty and fatigued soldiers. The calculations of the Indians were correct, in every detail—they had waited until the chances were all in their favor. Colonel Bouquet in a series of masterful maneuvers massed his troops on a well-chosen hill. In the center of the formation, he arranged a place of safety for the horses and cattle, the drivers, and the wounded.

The vision of General Edward Braddock's fate now clearly outlined itself to Bouquet. He found himself in a trap. Besieged, rather than engaged, attacked without interruption, without decision; able neither to advance nor to retreat—this was the tactical problem with which he was confronted. Quiet and unspectacular had been the fulfillment of his duty in this country up to that time. Exceptional qualities, both of mind and heart, were called for in this supreme hour. The soldiers, distressed almost to a turning point for the want of water, together with the incessant attacks of the redskins, needed at this stage a man who could spur them on, who could sustain their morale by his inexhaustible resourcefulness.

This mortal combat lasted until night, and a renewal of the fight was certain at daybreak.

Towards ten o'clock the next morning, when fighting was at its height, Colonel Bouquet, as a last measure, resorted to a stratagem by means of which he was able to mass the Indians first, trap them next, and destroy many of them in successive advances. As a result of this slaughter, where many of the chieftains lost their lives, the backbone of the Indian resistance was broken. The British detachment, now greatly reduced, had to contend with a few more minor skirmishes during the day as an aftermath of crushing defeat they delivered to the redmen, and on the following day what remained of the detachment proceeded to Fort Pitt, with practically no further opposition.

Colonel Bouquet's original plan of taking complete advantage of this victory by pushing right into the Indians' territory, did not meet with the approval of the State assemblies of Pennsylvania and Virginia. It was only late in the fall of the following year, that he was able so to do; his intention being a final and peaceable reckoning with the Ohio tribes, if possible. Such a step had become imperative, since, as early as spring 1764, the Indians made the whites believe that their intentions as cited in 1763 were not yet crushed. This, however, Bouquet did with his invasive army. The campaign had been planned on a large scale. Colonel Broadstreet operated from Fort Detroit and Bouquet from Fort Pitt.

The first attempt of the redskins to deliver up some of their white prisoners, was haughtily rejected by the commander of the expedition. His firm and categorical attitude forced the chieftains to comply with his last demands. More than 200 white prisoners were released by the various tribes. On November 28, 1764, Fort Pitt again was reached and thus Colonel Bouquet's military career in the West came to a close.

The Assembly of Pennsylvania passed a resolution of thanks and the King of England offered this great warrior his formal thanks.

A deep feeling of homesickness caused him to make plans for a trip to Europe. The visit was frustrated by his promotion to the rank of brigadier general and his appointment as commandant of the Southern Colonies of British America, with headquarters at Pensacola, Florida. There he died of fever on August 23, 1765. His remains lie in an unmarked grave. AL. B.

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AUGUSTUS LOUIS CHETLAIN

Brevet Major General of the Civil War, Public Official, and Banker

Born December 24, 1824, in St. Louis, Missouri.
Died March 15, 1914, in Chicago, Illinois.

THE turbulent years, during and immediately following the Napoleonic wars, also had seriously affected Switzerland, thereby causing political and economic changes, the results of which made many thousands of Swiss look favorably to the New World as a place where they might gain—even if by hard pioneering—a more advantageous livelihood and a new home.

In 1821 when Lord Selkirk, a Scotch nobleman, was planning to found a colony at the confluence of the Red and Assiniboine rivers, in the Canadian Northwest, near which today is situated the City of Winnipeg, Louis Chetlain and some 200 other Swiss from the Cantons of Neuchâtel and Berne, joined Selkirk in his venture to the wilds of the grim Northwest of America. They were healthy and robust people, well fitted for the labor and privations of pioneer life; and most of them were well educated and possessed of considerable means.

The adventures of Louis Chetlain, the father of the subject of this biography, may here be briefly recited, in order to understand what pioneering in those days entailed in the way of privation and suffering for the daring and courageous immigrants. Upon their arrival at the Hudson Bay Settlement, Lord Selkirk found himself confronted by opposition from a rival company, and so beset by obstacles, that he was unable to fulfill his promises to his followers. After two or three years of struggling amid untold privations, many of the settlers decided to leave and seek more favorable locations in the United States. Among these were Louis Chetlain and his family.

After traveling hundreds of miles in covered wagons through primitive stretches of the Northwest, they finally reached the Mississippi, and, with the aid of rowboats, reached St. Louis. Here they were welcomed by their American-born compatriot, Henry Gratiot, who previously had been appointed by the American Government as agent of the Winnebago Indians. The hot climate of Missouri did not agree with the Chetlains, and when Gratiot left for his newly assigned post on the Illinois river, they decided to join him. During the stay of the Chetlains in St. Louis, a son was born to them, and named Augustus Louis—the subject of this sketch.

Arriving at their destination, they found a favorable and beautiful location and, together with others, decided to settle there. Still other members of the party picked their new home at La Pointe, later named Galena. The Chetlains settled on Government land and engaged in farming. While the rich lead mines in that vicinity in which the Gratiot brothers were very active, were being developed, Chetlain devoted most of his efforts to mining, smelting, teaming, and trading. The lead mines caused a large influx of people, and, as a consequence, the countryside became one of the best developed and richest sections of the Northwest.

When the Black Hawk war took place in 1832, and the Indians launched their campaign of depredations, life at the settlement became one of constant fear and anxiety, thereby causing the pioneers untold tribulations and hardships. General Chetlain, in his *Recollections of Seventy Years,* relates in stirring terms the thrilling experiences during those dark and perilous days. At the end of the Black Hawk war, the father sold his Apple river homestead, near Gratiot's Grove, and removed to Galena, in order to provide educational facilities for his growing children. Augustus Louis remained with his father until the middle forties, when he began work as a clerk in a business establishment in Galena.

Besides the education he had received at home and in the schools of Galena, Augustus Louis also had been taught the rudiments of horticulture and floriculture by his father's friend, James G. Soulard. During the years of his clerkship, he acquired a good insight into business methods, and familiarized himself with the extensive trade around Galena, which town in the early days of northwest Illinois also was the commercial metropolis of a large section of Wisconsin and Iowa. By the late thirties, Galena had become a recognized trade center, and the steady influx of settlers to that region rapidly enhanced the business capacity of the town, so that by 1856 its trade exceeded that of Chicago.

However, this condition did not last. The business people of Galena at that time either refused or neglected to enter the industrial field. Other cities on the Mississippi encroached on Galena's priority rights as a mercantile mart, and ere long Galena was outstripped by its lusty young rival on Lake Michigan, and today is but a shadow of its one-time supremacy as a Western trading metropolis. However, in 1852, before the heyday of Galena's commercial glory had passed, young Chetlain had established himself, in a modest way, as a merchant, and by sheer pluck and strict attention to his enterprise, combined with his practical experience in the small things, he was reasonably successful within a few years.

In the summer of 1859, Chetlain disposed of his business to his chief clerk and undertook a vacation abroad. He had long cherished a wish to visit Europe, including Switzerland, the land of his parents and ancestors. In touching words, Chetlain described the overwhelming impression which the grandeur of the majestic Alps made upon him, and he expressed the most tender sentiments for his relatives and for the old homestead of his kin.

In the spring of 1860, after his return to Illinois from Europe, he hurled himself into the memorable political campaign in which Lincoln and Douglas were the outstanding opponents, and with enthusiasm and conviction advocated the nomination of Lincoln for the presidency. Thus he made the acquaintance of Ulysses S. Grant, who then was a retired army captain in his home town, Galena, and occupied with clerical work in his father's firm, the J. R. Grant Co. To the people of Galena, Grant at that time was a well-known character, usually referred to as ''that man who always has a cigar in his mouth and never talks.'' However, Chetlain must have detected more worthy qualities in the man, judging from the fact that an intimate friendship arose between him and Grant. Little did Chetlain know that in less than five years this ''obscure individual'' would stand at the head of the armed Federal forces which successfully had overcome the soldiers of the Confederacy, and ultimately would be president of the nation.

Grant and Chetlain were prompt in responding to Lincoln's memorable call for volunteers. A mass meeting was held at Galena, at which a resolution was adopted offering Governor Yates a company of volunteers. The proffer was promptly accepted, the company rapidly organized, and Grant, who was a graduate of West Point and an experienced army officer, was logically proposed for the captaincy of the volunteer company. Grant, however, politely declined the honor on the ground that in consideration of his military training he ought to be made a colonel of a regiment. However, he in turn proposed his friend Chetlain for the captaincy, and the latter was duly elected.

On April 25, 1861, the Galena military unit left for Springfield, Ill., with Grant in its ranks. Captain Grant, aided by the inexperienced Chetlain, instructed and trained the company. Grant and Chetlain roomed together in Springfield, the former soon having found employment in the adjutant-general's office. Grant, somewhat discouraged and discomfited by his inability to obtain a suitable command, entertained thoughts of returning to Galena. Chetlain, however, persuaded him to stay and assured him that in the course of time his ambitions would be realized. To be sure, in a few days thereafter Grant was detailed to take charge of Camp Yates, soon followed by a call to organize a regiment at Mattoon. This proved to be the first stepping stone to his ultimate rank of commanding general of the Union army.

Chetlain also rapidly advanced. He developed conspicuous qualities as an efficient officer, and shortly was commissioned a lieutenant colonel and placed in command of the Twelfth Illinois Regiment. In September, 1861, his regiment participated in an expedition against Paducah, Kentucky, after which he was assigned to the task of constructing fortifications at the mouth of the Cumberland river. In January, 1862, he was relieved of this work, and again joined his regiment and took part in the engagements up the Tennessee river. He was present at the capture of Ft. Henry, and ten days later led his troops at the Battle of Ft. Donelson. Soon thereafter, he was commissioned colonel of his regiment.

On April 6, 1862, Chetlain and his men took part in the Battle of Shiloh and were under fire for several hours. Following this, his regiment was employed in the long and weary siege of Corinth, Mississippi. In December, 1863, after having fought with distinction, Colonel Chetlain was promoted to the rank of brigadier general, and ordered to report to General Grant at Nashville, Tenn., for assignment of duty. On this occasion the two ''old pals'' exchanged hearty greetings and congratulations.

Chetlain now was assigned to the difficult task of recruiting and organizing the negro troops of Tennessee and Kentucky. He was very successful in this arduous undertaking, which required much patience and perseverance. In this respect, his meritorious services again were recognized and in June, 1865, he was appointed a brevet major general. The troops now under General Chetlain consisted of twelve regiments of infantry, two regiments of cavalry, a battery of heavy artillery and four batteries of light artillery. In the autumn of 1865, he was placed in command of the Central District of Alabama, with headquarters at Talladega, where, at the conclusion of the four and one-half years' conflict, he terminated his brilliant Civil war record in defense of the Union.

As usually is the case after a war, many of the participants are recognized for political preferment; and General Chetlain was appointed by President Johnson to the post of assessor of internal revenue for Utah and Wyoming, with headquarters at Salt Lake City. From 1869-72, he acted as Consul-General of the United States in Brussels, Belgium. During this period, and at the invitation of Elihu B. Washburne, the American Ambassador, at Paris, he and Mrs. Chetlain were present at the memorable court ball given by Napoleon and Eugenie, in the *Palais des Tuileries,* and which is recorded as the last social court function before the downfall of the French Empire.

In 1872, he resigned the consul-generalship and returned to the United States to settle in Chicago, a year after the big fire, when the city was being rebuilt. He organized the Home National Bank and became its president; later he became president of the Industrial Bank of Chicago, of which he also was a charter member. Gradually he became recognized as a civic leader; and took an interested and active part in all matters pertaining to the growth and development of Chicago. He served on the Board of Education; was a member of the board of the Citizens' Association, and served in a similar capacity on the Chicago Stock Exchange. Chetlain was married to Miss Emily Tenney, of Lorain county, Ohio, October 26, 1847. She died after a son, Arthur Henry Chetlain was born, who afterwards became a Judge of the Superior Court of Cook county. His second marriage was in 1865 to Mrs. Annie M. Smith, the daughter of John Edwards and the widow of Col. Melancthon Smith.

In the last years of his life, General Chetlain lived in retirement, at the home of his son. A. BA.

Sources of Information:

Recollections of Seventy Years (1899), by Augustus L. Chetlain.
The Red River Colony (1893), by Augustus L. Chetlain.
Our Ancestors, a local publication of Galena, Ill., by Priscilla Mullen's Chapter of the Daughters of the American Revolution.
Information imparted to Albert Bartholdi by Mrs. Florence Gratiot Bale, Galena, Ill.
Encyclopædia of Biographies of Illinois (1894).

EDWARD WALTER EBERLE

Admiral in the United States Navy, and Chief of Naval Operations

Born August 17, 1864, at Denton, Texas.
Died July 6, 1929, at Washington, D. C.

TO portray the career of Admiral Eberle would almost mean to write the history of the American navy during its period of transition from the old to the modern, for it was Eberle who contributed a major part to its modernization.

Edward Walter Eberle was born August 17, 1864, at Denton, Texas, the younger of the two sons of Joseph and Mary (Stemler) Eberle. His father came from Wallenstadt, Canton of St. Gall, Switzerland, from which place he emigrated to America in 1847 at the age of eighteen years. After his arrival, he immediately proceeded to Texas, and at first settled at Fort Smith, then at Denton, where Edward Walter, the subject, was born, later returning to Fort Smith where he made his permanent home. The elder Eberle engaged in the mercantile business and became a man of considerable means. During his lifetime, he developed a beneficial public activity, particularly in the fields of education and local politics, and thus attained a position of prominence and good reputation within his local sphere. This also is evidenced by the fact that his son received the appointment to the Naval Academy at Annapolis, an act which requires the endorsement of a member of the United States Congress. Father Eberle took part in the Civil war and served as an officer in the Confederate Army. The mother of Admiral Eberle, neé Mary Stemler, came from a prominent family of German extraction, residing at Savannah, Georgia.

Edward Walter Eberle attended the public and high schools at Fort Smith. In 1881, he became a student at the Naval Academy in Annapolis, where he graduated in 1885. During his years at Annapolis, he formed a life-long friendship with Curtis D. Wilbur, who was a member of the class of 1888, and who became secretary of the navy in the Coolidge cabinet at the time that Eberle was chief of naval operations. The two erst-

EDWARD W. EBERLE

while cadets rose to become the heads of America's great navy. After his graduation, Eberle, now a young officer, filled various posts in the Atlantic and Pacific fleets, being assigned to such ships as the "Mohican," "Shenandoah," "Ranger," "Albatross," "Lancaster," and the "Marion." In 1894, he was instructor at the Naval Academy at Annapolis, Md. In 1896, he again was at sea and made a trip around the world on the U. S. S. "Oregon." In 1899, Eberle returned to the Naval Academy as instructor. In 1902-03, he was at the Brooklyn navy yard filing the post as commandant ad interim. During 1903-05, he was at sea as flag-officer of the Atlantic fleet, and in 1905-07 again saw service at the Naval Academy and at the War College. At the same time, he also was on the Board of Inspection and Survey, an office which was created years before by Ferdinand Rudolph Hassler, a celebrated engineer from Aarau, Switzerland, in whose honor one of the American naval vessels was named. In 1907-08, Eberle was the executive officer of the U. S. S. "Louisiana," and as such made his second circumnavigation of the globe, which was followed by a third in 1910-11. Upon his return, he was made chief of the Atlantic submarine fleet. In 1914, he was assigned to command the U. S. S. "Washington" and the naval force in Santo Domingo, during the political upheaval on that island. In 1915, Eberle, now a captain, became commandant of the navy yard and gun factory at Washington, D. C., and in the same year was appointed to take charge of the Naval Academy at Annapolis. On February 1, 1918, he was promoted to the rank of rear admiral. In his capacity as superintendent of the Naval Academy, he revealed exceptional abilities as an administrator. He initiated a new régime by curbing the over-developed sports activities, and instead, furthering the naval training, so that the students might be adequately prepared for the higher and more scientific tasks with which the modern navy is confronted. His wisdom and tact in handling young men were of great value in guiding the education and shaping the character of future naval officers. Rear Admiral Eberle remained at his post in Annapolis throughout the World war. He again was ordered to sea in 1919, and this time he focused his attention on the study and development of aviation in connection with fleet operations. In this work he brought into play his knowledge of wireless telegraphy, together with the added use of airplanes. Eberle also is credited with having developed the "smoke screen" for camouflaging naval movements. In 1921, he assumed command of the entire

Pacific fleet, achieving the temporary rank of admiral. The following year, he headed the battle fleet, and in 1923 was appointed to the four-year term as Chief of Naval Operations, the highest active rank the American navy has to offer.

At the completion of his term as Chief of Naval Operations and president of the General Board of the Navy, Edward Walter Eberle retired from active service to enjoy the twilight years of his life, free from care and duty, but, as so often is the case, the life of leisure proved fatal to his ever active nature. A premature death closed his brilliant career on July 6, 1929, barely half a year after his retirement.

Edward Walter Eberle was married in 1889 to Tazie Harrison of San Francisco, who bore him one son, Edward Randolph. Young Eberle followed his father's footsteps and also chose a naval career. He now (1932) is a lieutenant-commander.

In his capacity as active commander-in-chief of the United States navy, Admiral Eberle played a conspicuous part in shaping the destiny of America's national defense. His ability to obtain the co-operation of all subordinate commanders is, in a large measure, responsible for the excellent discipline and the splendid efficiency which the navy in recent years has achieved. As chief of Naval Operations, his counsel on questions of national defense was highly respected by the officials of the American Government.

Aside from the excellent services he rendered as naval executive he also established for himself a reputation as an author of technical works, which are considered and used as standards in modern naval colleges. Distinguished in active service, he also filled creditable civic and social positions, such as president of the Navy Mutual Aid Association, president of the Navy Relief Society, and president of the Naval Institute. He also was member of several clubs and societies: the Society of Foreign Wars, the Military Order of the World War, the Army and Navy Club, the New York Yacht Club, and the Chevy Chase Club, Washington, D. C.

A. Ba.

Sources of Information:

Two letters from Admiral Eberle, and one letter from Frank Eberle of Joplin, Mo., brother of Admiral Eberle.

Copy of the subject's official service record, placed at the disposal of the writer by Admiral Eberle.

New York Times, July 7, 1929.

CHARLES GRATIOT, JR.

Brevet Brigadier General and Chief Engineer of United States Army

Born August 29, 1786, in St. Louis, Missouri.
Died May 18, 1855, in St. Louis, Missouri.

CHARLES GRATIOT, JR., was the eldest of the four sons of Charles Gratiot, Sr. The circumstances of his birth were peculiar. He was born under Spanish sovereignty, in a completely French-speaking settlement on the Mississippi river, now the City of St. Louis. His father was a citizen of Virginia, born in Lausanne, Switzerland. This may be explained by the changes that had taken place on the map of America after the struggle for mastery between France and England, which in 1754 began with the war in which Canada was the prize, and ended in favor of England in 1763. France not only ceded the northern half of America to England, but permitted Spain to hold the southwestern section, then commonly known as the Louisiana Territory. Spain, however, did no colonizing, nor attempt to govern the territory held. The colonizers were French, and they remained French in thought and in speech, as well as in national adherence.

In 1800, when Napoleon again took over the Louisiana Territory it became French in name, as well as in fact. The recovery did not last long, however; for in 1803 Napoleon sold the whole southwestern section, known as Louisiana, to the United States. Young Charles then was fast growing into manhood. President Jefferson was desirous of conciliating the French-speaking people of the newly acquired western territory and one means suggested, and readily adopted by him, was to appoint as cadets to the Military Academy at West Point the sons of some of the most influential and representative citizens of the new possessions. Among those chosen was Charles Gratiot, Jr. He entered West Point July 17, 1804, then not quite eighteen; was graduated October 30, 1806, and commissioned a second lieutenant, corps of engineers; and on February 23, 1808, his promotion to a captaincy followed.

During the War of 1812, he served as engineer-in-chief of the army of the Northwest, operating in the region of the Great Lakes. He was engaged in the defence of Fort Meigs, and in the attack on Fort Mackinac. On February 9, 1815, he was advanced to the rank of major. When the fortifications in the Delaware river and bay had been decided upon, Major Gratiot was put in charge as superintending engineer. He also was appointed chief engineer of Department III, embracing Michigan and the northwest territory, and upon completion of this work was advanced to the rank of lieutenant colonel, March 31, 1819.

The construction of the formidable and very important defences and fortifications of Hampton Roads, Va., was entrusted to him, after the completion of which he was promoted to the rank of colonel and Chief Engineer of the United States Army, May 24, 1828. From 1828 to 1838, he had charge of the Engineers' Bureau in Washington, D. C., and for meritorious services as well as for the good of this department, he was promoted to brevet brigadier general in 1838. During these years, he also was ex-officio inspector of the Military Academy. His appointment to Chief Engineer of the U. S. Army, during a period of great activity in strengthening the defences of the country, placed him in a position of great authority and varied responsibility.

In 1838, differences arose between General Gratiot and the accounting officers of the Government in connection with public expenditures which were entrusted to him as Chief Engineer and Disbursing Agent for the construction of the fortifications, and they culminated December 4, 1838, in his dismissal from the army, by order of President Van Buren. A long series of litigations ensued, followed by unsuccessful attempts for reinstatement.

During this time, while attempting to secure exoneration, he remained in Washington, D. C., supporting himself and family by serving as a clerk in the Land Office. Shortly before his death, he returned to St. Louis, brokenhearted, and died where he was born, at the age of sixty-nine years.

A mass of testimony was collected in support of General Gratiot's plea for reinstatement, and on August 31, 1852, he was exonerated by the Committee on the Judiciary in a report to the Senate. This report reads in part:

> The career of the petitioner (Charles Gratiot) in the Army of the United States, during a long period of nearly forty years, is a matter

of history that may justly excite the pride and admiration of every American citizen. Brave in battle, he presided for a long time with distinguished honor and ability at the head of one of the most difficult and arduous bureaus of the military department. He has left to the country lasting monuments of his skill and science in the construction of various magnificent fortifications, both to exhibit her strength and to insure her safety.

The case of General Charles Gratiot, who was the chief of the corps of engineers in the army of the United States, has been so elaborately discussed in every circle and so fully reported upon to Congress, that the history of the whole case is familiar to everyone.

The support of the petitioner denies totally the truth of the charges of defalcation, and contends that he is not and never was indebted to the United States for moneys misused by him, and that a just and legal adjustment will bring the United States in debt to him, etc.

In recognition of the conspicuous services of General Charles Gratiot to his country, his name has been perpetuated in Michigan in naming Gratiot county for him; likewise, Gratiot township in Wayne county; Gratiot Avenue in Detroit; Fort Gratiot on the right bank of the St. Clair river, and Gratiot township in Wisconsin.

A. Ba.

Sources of Information:

Biographical Register of the United States Military Academy at West Point, submitted for consultation through the courtesy of the Superintendent of West Point Military Academy.

Michigan History Magazine, vol. iv, 1920.

HERMANN LIEB

Brevet Brigadier General U. S. Volunteers

Born May 24, 1826, near Ermatingen, Canton of Thurgau, Switzerland.
Died March 5, 1908, in Chicago, Illinois.

GENERAL HERMANN LIEB was a typical republican of Switzerland's old school of democracy. He believed in the principles of democracy and that it was possible to educate the common people in these principles and in those of self-government. He was a "Gottfried Keller" democrat, and an apostle of extreme liberalism. In the country of his adoption, he stuck to those principles, and fought for their preservation throughout the Civil war.

After receiving a thorough education in his native town, he left for Paris at the age of twenty for the purpose of studying French and gaining experience in mercantile pursuits. His departure for Paris occurred in 1846, at a time when much dissatisfaction was being manifested in Paris over the "citizen king," Louis Philippe of Orleans, and his prime minister, Guizot. In February, 1848, when the revolution finally burst forth, young Lieb could not resist the temptation of assisting the republican forces in the overthrow of Louis Philip, and he fought courageously in the streets of Paris on the side of the people.

In 1855, Hermann Lieb came to the United States and settled in the thriving City of Chicago. Here he studied law, and practiced his profession with considerable success, at the same time interesting himself in political affairs. At the inception of the Civil war, he was one of the first to respond to President Lincoln's call for volunteers, and enlisted April 30, 1861 as a private in Company B of the Eighth Illinois Infantry Regiment. His military ability soon came to the fore. He proved to be a very energetic, alert, and capable soldier. Thus, he soon advanced to the rank of major and was commissioned by General Grant to organize a negro regiment. For this purpose, a river steamer was placed at his disposal. Within a remarkably short time, Lieb had brought together 1,800 negroes, who, under his military instruction and training, made a capable fighting unit. On August 7, 1863, he was promoted to colonelcy, and under his command his regiment was assigned to the regular army, and later distinguished itself for bravery.

During the Battle of Mill Springs, Kentucky, Colonel Lieb was severely wounded, while General Zollicoffer of the Confederate forces was killed. After his recovery, he was given command of the heavy artillery of the Fourth Regular Regiment. He soon distinguished himself as an artillery officer, and in May, 1864, was appointed commander-in-chief of the artillery forces in the district west of the Mississippi. In 1865, during an independent expedition against Marion, Ark., Lieb directed his own troops as well as those of the Eleventh Cavalry Regiment, and was victorious in two important skirmishes. On March 13, 1865, Lieb was made a brigadier general, and was honorably mustered out of the service on May 20, 1866, after which he retired to private life.

After the war and at the suggestion of General Oglesby, he settled in Springfield, Ill., and engaged in newspaper work, publishing a German newspaper, the *Abend Journal.* His venture, however, lacked the necessary support and he transferred it to Chicago, but even here his paper did not meet with success. Several other ventures along this line also failed. Finally, he became an editor of the *Chicago Demokrat,* and took an active part in politics. Owing to his ability as an organizer and speaker, he became a conspicuous leader in the Democratic Party. From 1873 to 1877, he was county clerk of Cook county, following which, for three terms, he was a county commissioner, and chief of the department of water works. General Lieb proved to be a conscientious public official. He was scrupulously honest and capable, and fully merited the confidence of his fellow citizens. In 1895, he entered the Postal Service and until his death was postmaster of the northside of Chicago.

After an absence of fifty years, General Lieb visited his old home in Switzerland. Returning to Chicago, he related to a small gathering of his countrymen his experiences and impressions in the land of his birth. The theme of his address formed the basis of his treatise, ''Citizens' Rights,'' as enjoyed by the Swiss people in their safeguards of democracy, the ''initiative and referendum.'' In forceful and clearly defined language, he enthusiastically admonished his audience, as progressive and forward-looking Americans, to work for the introduction of the same measures in this country, as an effective weapon to thwart the corruption of, and domination by, political machines. He later published his address.

The Schweizer Club of Chicago, assisted by several prominent citizens of Swiss extraction, at once took the initiative in a movement which aimed at the introduction of the Swiss ''initiative and referendum'' in Chicago and Illinois. Mass meetings were held, at which General Lieb was the principal speaker, while the German papers and, to some extent, the American press, also gave the movement considerable publicity. Many leading citizens approved of the plan. The politicians, however, held aloof. The Spanish-American war then sidetracked the movement, and it was abandoned for the time being. Later, it was re-awakened and sponsored through the organization of the ''Referendum League.'' Again the movement lagged and was lost in the new era of imperialism which, after the Spanish-American war, took a strong hold on considerable portions of the population.

General Lieb was the author of many books and papers, all of which were widely read at the time of publication. Among them was one entitled, *The History of the German People;* another, *The Protective Tariff,* and which reflected his remarkable intellectual range. In spite of his long residence in the United States, he never forgot his native country, nor his mother tongue, in which he preferred to converse with his Swiss compatriots. General Lieb was a man of fine physique, over six feet tall, mentally alert, and a logical, clear thinker. He was a generous man, with a heart full of love for all mankind. He was esteemed and beloved by people of all classes for his many sterling qualities as a progressive citizen of Chicago and the United States.

B. B.

Sources of Information:

Historical Register of the United States Army, 1789-1889 (1890), by F. B. Heitman.

Information from personal acquaintances of the author.

FELIX KIRK ZOLLICOFFER

Journalist, Congressman, and Confederate General

Born May 19, 1812, in Maury County, Tennessee.
Died January 19, 1862, near Mill Springs, Kentucky.

GENERAL FELIX KIRK ZOLLICOFFER was a descendant of an ancient Swiss family of the Canton of St. Gall. The ancestral castle of Altenklingen in the Canton of Thurgau is still in possession of the family.

His great grandfather came to America in early Colonial times in company with Christopher de Graffenried, who, in 1710-11, founded the town of New Bern, North Carolina. Zollicoffer's first American ancestor settled in Virginia, and later removed to North Carolina. De Graffenried was the father of his first wife. Capt. George Zollicoffer, his grandfather, fought against the British in the Revolutionary War; John Jacob Zollicoffer, the subject's father, removed from North Carolina to Tennessee at the beginning of the nineteenth century, was one of the pioneer settlers of Maury County in the central part of the state, and subsequently became a prosperous planter.

Felix received the customary elementary schooling of pioneer days, after which he was apprenticed to the printer's trade. He was a bright, wide-awake young chap, and of robust physique, and the vocation of a printer was but a stepping-stone to higher attainments. After mastering the printer's art, he published a weekly newspaper at Paris, Tennessee, for about a year. He then went to Knoxville to work as a journeyman printer. From here he journeyed to Huntsville, Alabama. By this time he began to write for public journals, and one of his prose fancies may be found in *Field's Scrap Book.*

After a year or two, he returned to his home county, and took charge of the *Observer,* the county paper published at Columbia, Tennessee. During this time he also served as a soldier, and afterwards, as a commissioned officer, took part in the Seminole Indian war. In 1835, he was appointed state printer. Returning in 1837, he resumed his editorship of the *Observer,* and in the campaign of 1840, was an ardent supporter of the Whig presidential candidate. He published and edited a weekly agricultural paper in connection with his political publication.

In 1841, his ability as an editorial writer brought about his advancement as associate editor of the *Nashville Banner,* the Whig organ of Tennessee. He next entered the political arena and, in 1844, was elected comptroller of the state treasury, which he resigned in 1849, only to be elected to the state senate. In 1853, Zollicoffer was elected to Congress; he served three terms until 1859, during which time he gained an enviable reputation as an able debater. In 1861, he was chosen a delegate to the peace conference, which was called to prevent the pending conflict between the North and South.

Zollicoffer was not an advocate of ''States' Rights,'' as is erroneously accepted in most of his biographical accounts. On the contrary, before the Civil War he was what was known as an ''Old Line Whig''—an advocate of centralized Federal Government, rather than a stickler for states' rights in the ultimate sense. Above all, he was in favor of preserving peace, for he clearly foresaw the result of armed conflict between the states, and at the peace conference advocated the extreme of honorable compromise in order to avert a civil war.

General Felix K. Zollicoffer's devotion of heart, soul, body, and estate, unreservedly, to the cause of the South dated from the hour of President Lincoln's announcement of his policy of coercion in calling for troops to forcibly compel the Southern States to remain in the Union. To refuse, meant a state of rebellion; to accede, was to be a traitor to one's own. From that hour, his choice was to defend his imperiled Southland.

In the Civil War, Zollicoffer served in the Confederate army as a brigadier general. At the beginning of the conflict, he was put in command of an instruction camp at Tronsdale, Tennessee, where he remained until August, 1861, then joined the army in the field. Near Camp Wildcat, Kentucky, he was attacked and defeated by the Union Forces under General Albin Schoepf. At the engagement at Mill Springs, Kentucky, (designated by the Confederates as Fisher's Creek), his troops were partly successful, but after Zollicoffer's death, they stampeded in hasty retreat, suffering great loss.

There are various accounts extant of the incident which led to the shooting of General Zollicoffer by Colonel Speed S. Fry, who commanded a Kentucky regiment of Union forces at the engagement of Mill Springs. Herewith, preference is given to the version of his daughter, Mrs. R. H. Sansom, who, after diligent inquiry, prepared the following account:

> At the height of the engagement, at a moment when the Confederates had gained a distinct advantage over the Federals, one of Zollicoffer's colonels rode in haste to where he, on horseback, near his batteries, was directing the forward movement of the troops, and excitedly informed him that out on the left, in front, his soldiers were firing upon each other, not being able to tell friend from foe in the pouring rain of early morning. Instantly, the General rode forward obliquely to the left, through the thick woods and undergrowth of the battlefield, to satisfy himself as to the actual state of affairs.
>
> For a clear understanding of what followed it should be stated that the Federal Army in conflict with the smaller force of Confederates was on that morning receiving large reenforcements in the arrival of fresh troops whose officers were not known by sight to the troops who were at first engaged. It was only known that the new arrivals were being rapidly moved into position.
>
> General Zollicoffer wore a gum coat that completely enveloped his Confederate uniform, he having marched in a drenching rain from midnight until dawn, leading his little army. Thus it was that when he emerged from the tangled woods he found himself in a public road *behind* the firing line of the enemy, and was not recognized as a Confederate. Colonel Fry afterwards made a statement in print, bearing his own signature, that he (Fry) was riding forward along this road when he came in contact with a man on horseback whom he took to be an officer of the newly arrived Federal troops. They rode, his statement says, a few paces together, knee touching knee, while the stranger authoritatively told him to order his men to cease firing upon their own friends and, seeing the order obeyed, quietly turned aside to re-enter the woods.
>
> At that moment a rash young member of General Zollicoffer's staff, who had followed him and, realizing his peril, shouted, as he spurred his horse to the roadside, "It is the enemy, General!" at the same time firing directly at Colonel Fry, wounding him and killing his horse from under him. On the instant Colonel Fry fired his pistol at General Zollicoffer and, as he thought, gave him his mortal wound.
>
> But I have been told by Dr. Cliff, the surgeon who prepared his body for burial, that all of General Zollicoffer's wounds were from "minnie balls" and all were received in front. Dr. Cliff asserted this as a positive fact.
>
> General Zollicoffer was not responsible for the attack upon the Federal position. He had not sanctioned the sally from the Confederates' strongly entrenched camp, which had rather been proposed by his superior in command, General George Crittenden, in the council of war he held the night before the expedition. It was Zollicoffer, however, who was in the lead on the smash, and it was he who conducted the battle up to the time of his death, which caused such consternation that something like panic ensued in the Confederate ranks, and near-victory was turned into disastrous defeat.

A. Ba.

Sources of Information:

A biographical sketch prepared by Mrs. R. H. Sansom, of Knoxville, Tenn., daughter of the subject.
National Cyclopedia of American Biography.

ALBERT GALLATIN

Statesman, Financier, Diplomat, and Scientist

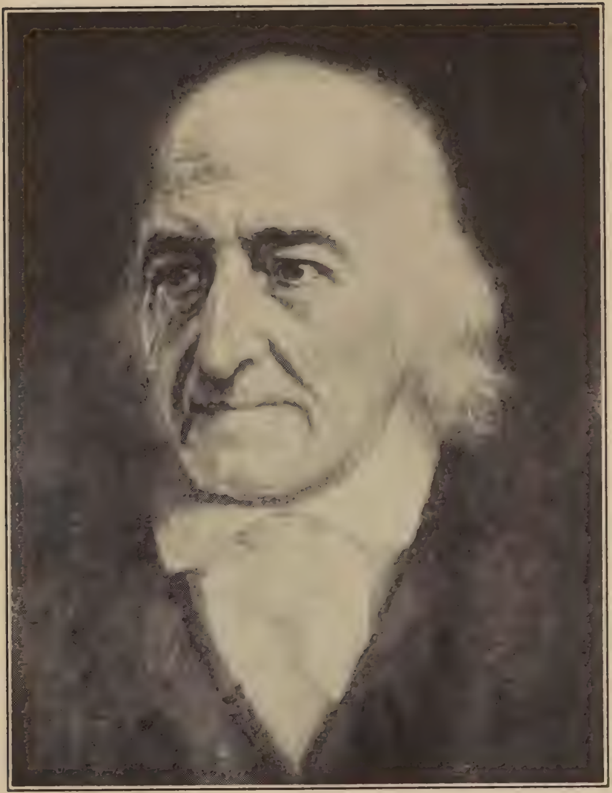
Born January 29, 1761, in Geneva, Switzerland.
Died August 12, 1849, at Astoria, Long Island, New York.

IN the galaxy of prominent Swiss in America, Albert Gallatin is the most illustrious. Indeed, no other American of foreign birth has attained a more honorable record of public service.

He was born on January 29, 1761, in Geneva, Switzerland, son of Jean and Sophia Albertina Rolaz du Rosey, and was christened Abraham Albert Alphonse, but only retained his matronymic Albert.

For centuries, the Gallatin family has played an important role in the social life of Geneva's aristocracy, and furnished numerous high officials to the city government. Albert's father, although engaged in business, was also active in politics as councillor of state; he died in 1765, and his widow followed him five years later, leaving besides Albert, then nine years old, an invalid daughter, who died soon after her mother. The duty of raising the orphan boy was assumed by the amiable Mademoiselle Pictet, a distant relative of his father, and close friend of his mother. The boy remained under her motherly care until January, 1773, when he was sent to a boarding-school, and from there to college, graduating in 1779 with high honors. Geneva was a center of culture and learning, where visitors and students from all parts of the world assembled to finish their education; it was a source of liberal thought and the resort for intellectuals to freely cultivate their ideas and ideals.

In this atmosphere of education and refinement he grew to manhood and developed his mind for a broader destiny. During his college years, he formed a close friendship with his compatriots Henri Serre and Jean Badollet, with whom he kept in touch to the end of their days. Here, he also met a few young Americans, whose acquaintanceship proved of great consequence in Gallatin's later life. From these young Americans he heard



ALBERT GALLATIN

thrilling tales of the romantic life in the New World, where the picturesque Indian roamed the plains, and where unlimited possibilities were awaiting those who had the courage and the ability to exploit them.

Thus Gallatin made up his mind to emigrate to America. Furthermore, this acquaintanceship exercised an influence upon young Gallatin, and led to his early democratic conviction, for it was from them that he heard of the cause of the American Revolution and of the ideals of liberty with which the young nation was imbued.

At this time, Albert Gallatin was a frequent visitor at the home of his grandmother, Madame Vaudenet Gallatin, in Pregny, where he often met the great philosopher, Voltaire, whose radical ideas also were influential in shaping the young student's aspects of the world. When at the close of his academic studies, the question of his career became acute, his grandmother proposed for him a commission in one of the Hessian regiments, which then were engaged in the service of the British army against the American revolutionists. The landgrave of Hesse having been a friend of the Gallatin family, it would have been an easy matter to fulfill this desire. The young idealist, however, retorted to the proffer in such a manner that it created a scene, whereupon he at once resolved to execute his previously conceived plan to emigrate to America.

He confided his project to his companion, Henri Serre, inducing him to join, and so the two secretly left Geneva for Nantes, where they disclosed their plans to relatives, who assisted them financially and supplied letters of introduction to influential Americans, among such letters being one from Benjamin Franklin, at that time American Minister to Paris.

On July 14, 1780, the two adventurers arrived at Cape Ann, Mass. From there they intended to proceed to Philadelphia, where the American Congress was in session, and where they expected to find the men for whom they carried letters of introduction. At the time, however, the fate of the American Revolutionists was hanging in the balance. New York, which was on their itinerary, was in the hands of the British, prospects for employment in the cities were discouraging, and so Gallatin's American career began by necessity, in real pioneer fashion, with a season of wood-chopping, serving for a short time as a soldier, teaching French, first to private pupils and then to students at Harvard College. After he had been a year in Cambridge, the war came to a close, and he was able to leave for Philadelphia, where he accepted the invitation of his friend, Savary de Valcoul, to enter into partnership with him for the purpose of conducting a real estate business in Virginia.

In spring 1784, Gallatin moved to Richmond and finally settled on a farm north of the Virginia line, in Fayette county, Pa., where he met for the first time General George Washington, who owned land in that region. Washington was so favorably impressed by this intelligent young man, that he urged him to become his land agent. Gallatin, however, declined, having planned to establish a Swiss colony in that section.

Frequently, Gallatin visited Richmond, the city of gayety and social activity, where his cultural attainments soon gained him many friends. In 1786, he became an American citizen under the laws of Virginia. Having now reached his legal maturity, he came into possession of his patrimony, amounting to $5,000 with which he bought another farm of about four-hundred acres, higher up on the Monongahela river, which he named ''Friendship Hill,'' and where he eventually built his permanent abode. This settlement formed the beginning of the Swiss colony of New Geneva. Here he began to take part in public affairs and attract the attention of his fellow citizens.

In 1787, when the Federal Constitution was submitted to the different states for ratification, Gallatin voiced his views to the Pennsylvania convention through the medium of his friend Smilie, protesting against a strongly centralized government. He then had occasion to appear openly on the scene, when he participated, as a delegate from Fayette county, at a meeting of the Anti-Federalists in Harrisburg. Gallatin was one of those who urged a new convention for the purpose of modifying the Constitution. However, the sweeping election of George Washington as President of the Union suppressed their movement, yet their persistence resulted in the adoption of those amendments which considered the rights of man. This was Gallatin's début on the political stage.

The strong magnet, which frequently drew Gallatin to Richmond was revealed in May, 1789, when he eloped with Sophie Allègre. The young couple enjoyed a happy romance, when suddenly, after six months of bliss death robbed him of his wife, leaving him heartbroken. To find relief from his sorrow, he contemplated returning to Switzerland, but was unable to liquidate his estate, and so, instead, he plunged more deeply into public affairs. Soon thereafter, he was chosen as a delegate from Fayette county to the state convention to revise the constitution of Pennsylvania, where he became one of the most conspicuous figures. In 1790, he was elected to the Pennsylvania legislature in which his progressive ideas soon became a dominant factor. By the adoption of Gallatin's financial policy the commonwealth was able to meet its administrative expenditures without resorting to direct taxation. In 1793, he was honored by election to the United States Senate. Immediately after taking his seat, the constitutionality of his election was contested on the ground, that he was ineligible, not having been a citizen for nine years, as required by law. In consequence, he relinquished his seat in February, 1794. His exclusion, however, indirectly turned to his advantage, for his hitherto local renown now assumed national proportions—he was hailed as a martyr of technicalities.

On November 11, 1793, Gallatin married the accomplished daughter of Commodore James Nicholson, then a resident of New York; an alliance which again enlarged his circle of friends. In 1794, when the ''Whiskey Rebellion'' had its inception, Gallatin found himself in the storm of events. While he was in sympathy with the sentiments of the people of his region in protesting against Hamilton's excise law relating to its specific inequality in taxation, he was decidedly opposed to any violent demonstrations. As a member of the local committee to confer with President Washington, he courageously asserted his attitude and the compromise effected largely is credited to his sagacity as mediator.

In grateful appreciation of his good offices, the constituency of his district elected him to Congress. He took his seat on December 7, 1796, and immediately rose to a predominating position in the national legislature. The main issue at that time was the foreign policy. The spirit of the French Revolution also made itself manifest in America, and divided the opinion of the people toward the new school of politics. The Federalists or Tories, with President Washington as their exponent, adhered to their conservative views and regarded the radical democratic doctrines as pernicious to law and order, and stressed the necessity of a strong centralized government, together with a powerful army and navy to prevent anarchy.

The Anti-Federalists or Whigs, however, with Gallatin as the central figure, embraced the new creed and upheld the rights of man. The people at large, still fatigued from the effects of the revolution, at first supported the Federalists' point of view, but the irresistible spirit of the new age advanced and the small group of liberals gradually grew into a powerful party, which, in 1801, ushered in the new régime.

The dissatisfaction of the people with the Jay Treaty presented an opportunity for the Anti-Federalists to limit the power of the Federal Government and to submit it under the control of the House of Representatives. In this movement, Gallatin was the leader. His first concrete measure was to create a permanent commission for the purpose of supervising the expenditures of the different governmental departments, particularly the treasury; each department was henceforth required to submit an estimate of appropriations for the coming fiscal year. These dispositions of Gallatin evolved into the regular budget system and into a permanent agency which today is known as the Ways and Means Committee—the outstanding committee of the House.

The most exciting episode in Gallatin's earlier political life occurred during the stormy days of the famous "XYZ" affair, when America, in 1798, was ready to declare war on France in protest against certain humiliations which the French Government at that time heaped upon the American nation. Gallatin, as the champion of the Anti-Federalists, opposed the government's foreign policy, helped to block the declaration of war, and protested against the appropriations for the building of warships. He was accused by his adversaries, of acting contrary to the interests of the country, and of being in fact a French agent. The Alien and Sedition Acts, which the Federalists, then in power, passed to silence the criticism of their opponents, were largely directed against Gallatin, with the ultimate aim of driving him out of office.

These impetuous acts of the Federalists, however, created a storm of indignation against their party. The Alien and Sedition laws were looked upon as the government's interference with the freedom of speech and the liberty of the press—basic rights which the American people have always guarded. The emphatic disapproval of such undemocratic tactics finally resulted in a sweeping victory for the Anti-Federalist or Republican Party in the Presidential campaign of 1800. This was a great triumph for Gallatin and the culmination of his career as a political leader. Stevens pertinently characterized Gallatin's political ascent in these words:

> In the first term, he asserted his power and took his place in the councils of his party; in the second term, he became the acknowledged leader, and in the third, he led his party to final victory.

With this turn of events, Gallatin entered upon a new phase of his public life. In acknowledgment of the rôle which he played in bringing his party into power, and in recognition of his qualifications in high finance, President Jefferson honored him with the appointment as Secretary of the Treasury. When taking the portfolio of the treasury department, he announced his program of strict economy, which became characteristic of his administration. His principal objective was to reduce the public debt and to abolish the internal revenue. Maintaining that this task could be accomplished only by a surplus of revenue over expenditures, he increased the duties on imports, playing thereby the part of the opportunist, but remaining in principle a free-trader.

The time for the realization of his plans was favorable: America assumed the position of neutrality during the Napoleonic wars, which at the time embroiled practically all of Europe with the result that a large portion of the maritime trade was turned over to American ships, bringing great prosperity to the country and yielding large revenues for the treasury.

In the direction of economy, Gallatin, as a further step, curbed the appropriations for the Army and Navy, and, in general reduced the governmental expenditures. He regulated the disposal of the public lands and favored the maintenance of the National Bank as an advantageous fiscal agent of the government. His program included such constructive projects as the development of the net of state roads, and the National Coast Survey. He was instrumental in the purchase of the Louisiana Territory, and, at the same time, secured for the United States its westward expansion. Despite the expenditure of $15,000,000 for this territory and the abolition of the internal revenue taxes, he was able to diminish the public debt from $84,700,000 in 1804, to $45,000,000 in 1812.

The great prosperity enjoyed by America aroused the jealousy of Great Britain and France to such an extent that they launched all sorts of chicaneries against this country in order to undermine her trade. England induced the Indians to attack the frontier settlements and increased her search of American ships on the high seas.

When Congress met in 1811, it resolved to terminate this humiliation by declaring war against Great Britain (June 1812).

The status with which the United States now was confronted, clearly revealed the advantages and disadvantages of the Gallatin régime. While his strict economy made it possible for the government to be supplied with money,—an important factor in war—he persistently refused to appropriate sufficient funds for the development of an efficient army and navy.

Gallatin, in this precarious state of affairs, became weary of his position and awaited an opportunity for an honorable withdrawal, and this occasion arose, when the Russian Emperor Alexander I offered his services as mediator between the United States and Great Britain. Gallatin sought the appointment as one of the negotiators, and President Madison, aware of his eminent fitness for the post, granted the request.

The American Commission sailed for Europe May 9, 1813, and with Gallatin was his son, James, then sixteen years old, who acted as his private secretary. On their arrival in St. Petersburg, the Commission learned that England refused the intercession of a third party and when informed later that England would negotiate direct the members proceeded to London. There, Gallatin was entertained by the Russian Emperor Alexander I, who, after the defeat of Napoleon, had fled to England. The Emperor again tendered his good offices, and negotiations for peace were begun in the City of Ghent, in Belgium, Aug. 8, 1814. The situation the American Commission had to face was utterly unfavorable. The British, in view of the weakness of the American army, were ill-disposed to terminate the war hoping by further military success to gain material advantages. The demands of the British were so exorbitant, that it must be regarded as a notable diplomatic achievement, due to Gallatin's ingenuity and tact, when at least the status quo ante-bellum was confirmed.

After the Treaty of Ghent was signed, December 24, 1814, Gallatin satisfied his longing to visit his native land. In Genoa, he was officially received and feted as a great statesman and diplomat. Among the visitors to greet him was the celebrated writer, Madame de Staël. On January 29, he attended a dinner at the Chateau d'Allaman, in honor of Joseph Bonaparte, the ex-King of Spain and Naples, who then lived in exile in the nearby Chateau de Prangin, which, after the World War, also served as a refuge for ex-Emperor Charles I, of Austria. On his way to England, Gallatin stayed a few days in Paris—days which became pregnant with historic and thrilling events.

Gallatin's opinion on Napoleon I was that of unreserved contempt for a despot who represented himself as the champion of liberty, but who was in reality the deadliest enemy of democratic principles. He rejoiced at Napoleon's downfall and wrote in a letter of November 27, 1815, to his friend Thomas Jefferson:

> What has lately passed was a scene in the drama, perhaps necessary to effect a radical cure of that love of conquest which had interrupted the nation and made the French oppressors abroad and slaves at home.

On March 31, 1815, Gallatin left Paris to join his colleagues, John Quincy Adams and Henry Clay, with whom he negotiated a commercial convention with the British Government, in which all discriminating duties were abolished. On his return to America, Gallatin was offered a nomination to Congress, as well as a second appointment as Secretary of the Treasury, but he declined both, desiring to enter the business life of America. He also declined a generous offer from John Jacob Astor to join him in partnership. A previous request made of him to become American minister to France was several times repeated, until the pleas of President Monroe, who begged him not to relinquish his public service, elicited his consent, and he left with his family for France.

While Gallatin was confronted with no particular difficulties at his new post, there still existed a general feeling of discontent toward the United States over the effects of the Jay Treaty with England, which, at the time, was interpreted as an unfriendly act toward France, and also because of America's failure to come to the assistance of France during her war with England. Credit is due Gallatin for his successful endeavor to remove these vestiges of animosity and for having re-established an era of friendship between the two nations.

In his foreign policy, Gallatin was guided by that spirit which later found its expression in the famous Monroe Doctrine. During his mission in France, Gallatin also was commissioned to assist in the negotiations of a new commercial treaty with England, as well as with the Netherlands. In general, his official duties in Paris were few, and while he thoroughly enjoyed the social side of his life in Paris, this relative inactivity, in the course of time, became boresome to his vivacious nature, and he decided to return to America, asking at first for a six months leave. Soon after his arrival in America, Gallatin found himself again in the whirl of politics. He was selected by his party to run as candidate for the Vice-Presidency. In consideration of the circumstances that Crawford, his personal friend, was their candidate for the Presidency, he consented to the nomination. As soon as his nomination became known, his opponents exploited the factor of his foreign birth and in a letter of September 25, 1824, Walter Lowrie advised him to withdraw from the contest on the ground that "the most serious fears are entertained of Calhoun's victory. Your chance of success is now almost hopeless and assuring you that as a fact, what is to be done? I would therefore advise you to withdraw." He yielded to what seemed the inevitable.

When, in the spring of 1825, the Marquis de Lafayette came to America as the nation's guest, he stayed a few days at the home of Gallatin, with whom he was intimately acquainted.

In the same year, Gallatin was asked to represent the United States at the proposed Congress of American Republics at Panama, but he declined chiefly because of his ignorance of the Spanish language. In the spring of 1826, President John Quincy Adams requested him to accept the appointment as Minister to England. Gallatin reluctantly consented under the condition that he be sent as extraordinary envoy and not as resident minister, and that he be at liberty to return after one year. The task to be fulfilled in England included: the settlement of the northeastern and northwestern boundaries, as well as the renewal of the Commercial Convention of 1818. After having discharged his duties, he returned to America satisfied that he had accomplished all that was reasonably possible and leaving the British Government in a better mood than that in which he found it upon his arrival.

With the completion of this mission to England, Gallatin's diplomatic career came to a close. He now entered the banking business and accepted the offer as president of the National Bank with residence in New York City. His new post did not absorb his entire time, and so he devoted his leisure hours to the pursuit of his favorite subjects—ethnology and history. He also resumed his publications. Among his more prominent writings are:

A Sketch of the Finances of the United States, (1796); *Views of the Public Debt, Receipts and Expenditures of the United States,* (1800); *Considerations on the Currency and Banking System of the United States,* (1831); *Synopsis of the Indian*

Tribes within the United States east of the Rocky Mountains, and in the British and Russian Possessions in North America, (1836); *Suggestions on the Banks and Currency of the Several United States in Reference Principally to the Suspension of Specie Payments,* (1841); *Notes on the Semi-Civilized Nations of Mexico, Yucatan, and Central America* (1845); *The Oregon Question,* (1846); *Peace with Mexico,* (1847); and *War Expenses,* (1848).

Once firmly established in the City of New York, he took a vivid interest in its welfare and became a generous supporter of its educational improvements. An idea which he brought from Paris, to create an "American Sorbonne," came to the point of realization in 1829, when he, together with other public-spirited intellectuals, founded the New York University. Their intention was to establish a general system of rational and practical education, accessible to all and gratuitously open to all on a national basis. In acknowledgment of the leading role which Gallatin played in this movement, he was chosen president of its first council, but before one year was over, he resigned in protest against the influence of the clergy which was gaining control of the institution.

In 1842, he founded in New York the American Ethnological Society. His home became the actual seat of this learned body, and Gallatin, who became known as the "Father of American Ethnology," was its guiding spirit.

In 1843, President Tyler offered him the Treasury portfolio, but in consideration of his advanced age, he declined to re-enter public life. In the same year, he was chosen president of the New York Historical Society, an honorary position which he held until his death, never losing interest in science and in the events of the world. When, in the summer of 1849, the death of his wife, to whom he was most dearly devoted, occurred, he was crushed both in body and spirit, and followed her in death on August 12, 1849, while at the country home of his daughter in Astoria, Long Island. His remains were interred in the hallowed grounds of the Trinity Church yard in New York City.

A. Ba.

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JAMES WILLIAM GOOD

Secretary of War

Born September 24, 1866, at Cedar Rapids, Iowa.
Died November 18, 1929, at Washington, D. C.

FROM the rather scant information obtained relating to the early ancestry of James W. Good it is evident that his Swiss forebears emulated the example of hundreds of compatriots who emigrated from Switzerland, first to the Palatinate, and later from there to America.

While it is true that several families of the name of Gut or Guth (the original Swiss spelling) settled in Lancaster county, Pa., it is definitely known that the first American ancestor of James W. Good was of the Reformed faith, and not a Mennonite, when he arrived in Pennsylvania; so that it may be taken for granted that his family left Switzerland for economic reasons.

The first American progenitor of James W. Good was Lorenz Guth (or Gut), who arrived in Philadelphia from Zweibruecken, Germany, in 1738 and settled at White Hall, Pennsylvania, in 1739.

The family history of the Guths (afterwards Americanized to Good) reveals a peculiar resemblance to that of the Hubers (President Hoover). As in the case of the Hubers, the Guths also emigrated from Switzerland to the Palatinate, from there to Pennsylvania, finally settling in Iowa. Descendants of these two families have become prominent in American life: one as President of the United States; the other as Secretary of War in the cabinet of President Hoover.

In 1752, Lorenz Guth donated 55 acres of land as a site for a church and a school. From the residue of this gift and its accretions in interest, a new stone church was erected in Guthsville, a town named in honor of the founder of the settlement. This edifice was rebuilt in 1929, and on the occasion of its dedication, James W. Good, secretary of war, delivered an address to the Jordan Reformed Church congregation and also made a donation to the church fund.

JAMES W. GOOD

The genealogy of the Good family reveals the following order of male descendants:

1—Lorenz Guth, Sr.; 2—Lorenz Guth, Jr.; 3—Daniel Guth; 4—Henry Guth, Sr.; 5—Henry Guth, Jr.; 6—Henry Good, who removed to Iowa; 7—James W. Good, who became secretary of war.

James William Good was born at Cedar Rapids, Iowa, September 24, 1866, son of Henry and Margaret Elizabeth (Combs) Good. He received his grammar and high school education in his home town, and in 1892 graduated from Coe College at Cedar Rapids. He then entered the University of Michigan to take up the study of law. Completing his studies, he returned to Cedar Rapids and engaged in the practice of law. In 1894, he married Lucy Deacon, with whom he had attended college, and who also had obtained a degree in law. His first entry into public life came in 1906, when he was appointed city attorney of Cedar Rapids. Two years later, he resigned this office and was nominated and elected to the Sixty-first Congress. After having been elected to six succeeding Congresses, he resigned his seat in 1921 in order to devote his entire time to his law practice. He had been active in the presidential election of 1920, and four years later he took charge of the campaign in the Middle West, aiding in the election of President Coolidge. While a member of Congress, he served on the appropriations committee, being assigned to the sub-committee on fortifications, in which capacity he gained a wide knowledge on military affairs.

During the World War, while still a member of the appropriations committee, he served on the sub-committee which had charge of the deficiency appropriations, embracing the bulk of the war appropriations, and also was a member of the budget committee. His constructive policy and intense activity in Congress, in conjunction with his pleasing personality, won for him the friendly nickname, ''Jimmy Good.'' He was a profound politician and he later openly acknowledged that his appointment as secretary of war was due largely to his friendly contacts with virtually the whole membership of Congress.

In the spring of 1928, after a recess of several years, he reappeared in the political arena to take a leading part, first in the pre-convention campaign in behalf of his personal friend, Herbert Hoover, and after the latter's nomination for the presidency, to assume the duties of Hoover's campaign manager in the West. Working indefatigably in the vast region from the Alleghanies to the Pacific coast, he carried all but two states in his territory, and besides, won the southern state of Texas for the Republican ticket and his friend Hoover.

It was naturally expected that Good would be rewarded for his staunch support, and when he was tendered the post of secretary of war by President Hoover, he accepted, and was duly confirmed by the Senate. Aside from his political activity in the Republican Party, Good had excellent qualifications for this office. As secretary of war he undertook no radical changes. He proved himself an active and capable administrator of the war secretaryship.

His sudden death, occurring November 18, 1929, after a short illness, was felt as a great loss to the nation. President Hoover had a great affection for Good, partly because both were born in the same part of Iowa. Later, it also came to light that both, in their ancestry, were of the same racial stock, and their family history portrayed a striking resemblance.

A. Ba.

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EMANUEL LORENZ PHILIPP

Governor of Wisconsin (1915-1920)

Born March 25, 1861, in Sauk County, Wisconsin.
Died June 15, 1925, in Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

EMANUEL LORENZ PHILIPP, Governor of Wisconsin from 1915 to 1920, was one of the fine examples of public leadership in America. At the time of his death in 1925, a resolution passed by the senate of his State declared that "during the critical time of the World War, Governor Philipp administered the State with prudence and under his guidance Wisconsin acquired an enviable record."

He was the son of Luzi and Sabine (Ludwig) Philipp, who came to America from Zizers (Graubünden) in 1849, and settled on a farm in Sauk County, Wisconsin. Here Emanuel was born in 1861. Shortly after his birth, his father joined the Union Army and for three years served in the Civil War. During her husband's absence, Mrs. Philipp moved to Sauk City, but returned to the country when he came back from war seriously wounded. A log house, four miles from Sauk City which the Philipps themselves had built, was their home thenceforth.

As a boy, Emanuel worked on the farm and spent a few months in school each year until he was sixteen years old. Then he managed to go to high school, covering his expenses with money he made by raising turkeys on his father's farm. Under these conditions, it was difficult for young Emanuel to get a suitable education, but he was very eager to learn and made rapid progress.

He grew up in a truly Swiss atmosphere, mastered the Swiss dialect, and enjoyed speaking it with his Swiss friends. At twenty-one years of age he left home and became a rural school teacher. A little later we find him working as a telegraph operator, and then again as railroad station agent serving in various places until 1882. The position of train despatcher was later given him, and from that time on his rise was rapid.

In 1887, he became freight solicitor in Milwaukee for the

Chicago, Milwaukee, & St. Paul Railroad, and, two years later, was designated general freight agent for the American Refrigerator Transit Company, and the Union Pacific Railroad.

From 1893 to 1903, he had charge of the Pabst lumber interests in Mississippi. In time, the town which gradually was built on the site of the lumber camp, was named after him. In 1897, he returned to Milwaukee to organize the Union Transit Refrigerator Company, of which organization he served as first president. At the same time, he continued to superintend the offices of the lumber business in St. Louis, where the lumber was assembled before being transported to its final destination.

About 1903, he took an interest in politics. He served as delegate to the conventions which nominated Roosevelt and Taft. In 1914, Emanuel Philipp, because of his good business judgment and his vivid interest in civic affairs, was brought forward as candidate for Governor of the State of Wisconsin and was elected. His success as a public executive is best evidenced by the fact that he was re-elected in 1916 and 1918.

During the World War, the business of administration was no easy task, yet Governor Philipp headed his State with remarkable skill and efficiency. Having grown up in the country, he was familiar with the problems of the farmer, and as an experienced and successful business man, he was well qualified to give expert advice in commercial and administrative affairs. The aim he chiefly had in mind as Governor, was to find a basis of co-operation for the three great economic groups: farmer, laborer, and business-man, thus endeavoring to eliminate, or at least to materially reduce the antagonism between the city and the country.

He was the author of two books in connection with his business and political career: *The Truth About Wisconsin's Freight Rates* (1904), and *Political Reform in Wisconsin* (1908).

When the United States entered the World War the Wisconsin boys were outfitted and ready for action long before those of many other states. At the same time, provisions were made for the care of the Wisconsin soldiers.

Before the United States participated in the war, Governor Philipp enjoyed excellent health. His thoughts and efforts were for his home, his friends, his business and chiefly for the government of the State. When the conflict eventually came, everything was set aside so that he and his people might share in the work that confronted the United States. The excessive amount of exacting labor during the war took from him much of the strength with which he had been endowed. He slaved day and night, sacrificed much in health and energy, and when he left the office of Governor after six years of devoted service, he was physically impaired and ailing. Philipp proved himself a chief executive with a burning love for his people, willing to do everything in his power for the men, women and children of his State. To them he also had proven himself the ideal leader at a time when leadership was greatly needed.

After serving his third term as Governor, he returned to Milwaukee and continued his business as head of the Union Refrigerator Transit Company and the Mi Sola Cigar Company. He did not relinquish his interest in the affairs of City, State, and Nation.

At the time of his death, he was serving his third term as president of the Milwaukee Chamber of Commerce, having held the office longer than any of his predecessors. He took a deep interest in the development of Milwaukee and the State of Wisconsin; was active in the work of the St. Lawrence waterway, the Land o'Lakes Association, the proposed airport, etc. He tried to make Wisconsin the dairy center of the world, fostered the move to erect cold storage buildings providing suitable facilities for butter, cheese, eggs, and other food products.

All who came in contact with Philipp respected him as a man of strong character. His sincerity and conscientiousness manifested themselves to a high degree in his business life, as well as in his political career. Governor Blaine said of him:

> Although I did not share all of Philipp's political views, nevertheless I always held him in the highest esteem as a man of character and a statesman. He was a man of remarkable perseverance. The six years of his activity in office proved to be a strenuous task and particularly through the responsibilities exacted of him during the war. In his demise Wisconsin loses a man whose wise foresight and definite consciousness of purpose have left their influence on our institutions as a powerful example as to what may be accomplished through unrelenting and earnest work.

J. K.

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Personal data furnished the writer by Carl Marty of Monroe, Wis.

HENRY WISNER

Patriot of the Revolutionary War, and Member of the Continental Congress

Born 1720, near Florida, Orange County, New York.
Died March 4, 1790, at Goshen, N. Y.

HENRY WISNER was one of those romantic and patriotic figures distinctive of the American Revolutionary period. Although biographers have failed to place him upon the same high pedestal achieved by other great leaders of his time, the fact remains that he played a leading role in the drama of the birth of this nation. While men like Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, John Adams and Richard Henry Lee are identified with the spiritual conception of American Independence, Henry Wisner gave effective leadership behind the scene, devoting his efforts more particularly to the practical solution of problems confronting the struggling colonies. He emerged as a forceful leader in action when action was urgently needed.

His grandfather, Johannes Wisner, a Swiss mercenary soldier, came to America with a number of other refugees who had been driven out of the Palatinate by the army of Louis XIV. In 1710, some three thousand of them, including Johannes Wisner, his wife and son Hendrick, were sent to the New World in a fleet of ten ships. After a hazardous voyage, they landed at New York from which point they immediately were distributed as colonists.

Hendrick Wisner and wife Mary Shaw, the parents of Henry, settled as tenants on land near Florida, New York. In 1714, for the sum of eight pounds, he bought a hundred acres of land. Thus began this immigrant family, which in the next generation was to flower in Henry Wisner, a man, who not alone became identified with national affairs, but who numbered among his associates the most illustrious men of his time. The Wisners were a thrifty family, and by the time Henry had grown to manhood, they had acquired considerable land.

Soon after his marriage to Sarah Norton of Long Island, young Wisner settled on a small farm near Denton, New York, removing later to Phillipsburg, where he operated a grist-mill. During the next twenty years, Henry gradually added thousands of acres to the family estate. He realized the value of waterpower and extensively developed its use. As a man of large land holdings, his name spread over several counties. His courageous convictions, coupled with his practical ideas, won him the confidence of the public, so that at the age of thirty-nine he had so deeply endeared himself in the hearts of the people, that they elected him as their Representative to the Provincial Congress of 1759.

Most of the Colonies then had popular assemblies; they grew out of town meetings. Their power was limited by the Council, an upper body of twelve, with royalist leanings, and above them was the Royal Governor. Because of this system, reaching from town meetings up to the assemblies, the people in America had for generations been politically educated. They were accustomed to a free discussion of public affairs. The knowledge of this fact permits a better comprehension of Henry Wisner and like men with their ready skill and self-reliant action in all kinds of emergencies.

When the tide of bitter opposition to the measures of King George III manifested itself, the Colonies, ever in fear of drastic measures, created the Committees of Safety, an extraordinary institution. Its members were composed of the most trusted of citizens; their word became law. They were a sort of government within a government, accepted by the people, but having no legal status. The Royal Governor was powerless to suppress them, and resistance, at first passive, soon became active.

Henry Wisner was a leader in the committees of his town and county. It was these Committees of Safety that made possible the swift response to the call of stricken Massachusetts for a Congress of all of the Colonies to meet at Carpenter's Hall in Philadelphia, September 8, 1774.

At a meeting of the Committee of Orange County, Henry Wisner of Goshen, and John Herring of Orangetown, the former not without vigorous opposition by the Tories, were selected as delegates to join those of the other colonies "to consult on measures to secure redress for grievance."

The first Congress, in which Henry Wisner appeared, was composed of a group of able, practical idealists, such as never before, and perhaps never since, gathered in America. That which they discussed and resolved at that time, finally resulted in the Declaration of Independence of the United States. In November, 1774, while Henry Wisner still was in Congress, the British issued an order forbidding the export of arms and ammunition to the American Colonies. The news suggested to him the idea of studying the manufacture of gunpowder. Soon thereafter, he opened a gunpowder mill on the farm of his son-in-law, Moses Phillips, at Phillipsburg, New York. When the Battle of Lexington was fought in April, 1775, a new Congress was called, and Henry Wisner again was selected to join the representative men, who assembled May 10, 1775, at the State House in Philadelphia, now known as Independence Hall. During this session, Henry Wisner, then the only American powder-maker, was made chairman of the various committees of defense. Although active in Congress, he often returned to Goshen, to supervise his powder plant. On June 7, 1776, Henry Wisner was back in Philadelphia, when Richard Henry Lee of Virginia offered to the Congress a brief, but yet decisive, resolution of complete independence, which, after prolonged debates, finally was adopted on July 2, 1776—the date of the actual Declaration of Independence.

The secret journal of the Congress reveals, that on July 19, 1776, it was resolved to have the original script engrossed, but it was not until August 2, 1776, that the document was signed by the members present at the Congress.

Realizing that the Colonies could not reach their goal by resolutions alone, but that action was more essential, he returned to Goshen about July 16, and thereafter the journal of the Congress does not allude to him. This explains the absence of Wisner's name from the Declaration of Independence.

New York was the most threatened of the Colonies, and its defense was the key problem for the Americans. The Hudson must be defended and held, or the cause is lost, was Wisner's conviction. He well knew that this could not be accomplished by sitting in a chair in Philadelphia. He erected two additional powder mills, and occupied himself with purchases of provisions.

As commissioner for fortifications on the Hudson river, he assisted in the final placing of the great chain across that stream at West Point. His presence was required wherever action was needed. In 1778, Wisner served on the committee to confer with General Putnam relative to the construction of works for the defense of the passes in the Hudson Highlands, and to obtain artificers and material for accomplishing the security of the Hudson river. He concurred in the selection of West Point as the best position to fortify, and advanced considerable sums in making that place an American Gibraltar. It is not known whether Henry Wisner ever was in active military service, but in 1781 he carried the title of colonel.

After the war, Henry Wisner gradually retired from active public service. He emerged from the conflict with a depleted purse, having also sacrificed his material resources for the cause of his country—verily, a true patriot! In the twilight years of his life, he became interested in the field of education, and served as a regent of New York University.

As a close friend of Noah Webster, author of the *Spelling Book,* he assisted in securing the copyright for this work. He also labored to establish an academy in Goshen, New York, and his name appears on the charter granted only a few days before his death. Henry Wisner died March 4, 1790, a devoted friend to the liberties of his country.

A. BA.

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Independence Hall, Bulletin 1, The Declaration Chamber, Philadelphia, 1925.

WILLIAM WIRT

Attorney General of the United States, Orator, and Lawyer

Born November 8, 1772, at Bladensburg, Maryland.
Died February 18, 1834, at Washington, D. C.

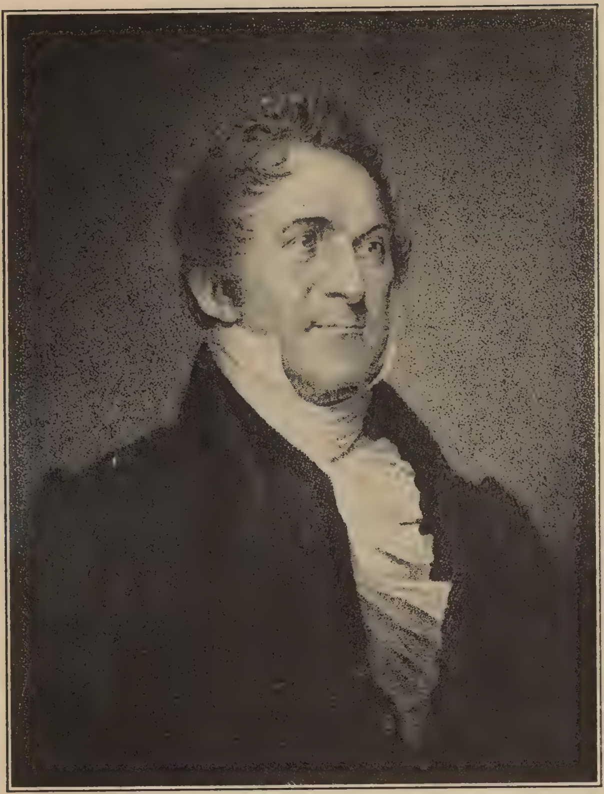
TO William Wirt belongs the distinction of having served as attorney general of the United States for a period far surpassing that of any of his predecessors or successors. A great jurist, a lovable character, held in dearest esteem by all of his contemporaries, he fully deserves to be called the most beloved of American advocates.

Born November 8, 1772, at Bladensburg, Md., then a thrifty, business driving little seaport, profitably devoted to tobacco trade, William was the youngest of six children. His father, who was a Swiss, had settled in Bladensburg some years before the Revolutionary war. His mother was German. A small tavern which they conducted, provided the means of livelihood for the family.

While yet a mere child, William lost both of his parents and passed into the family and guardianship of his uncle, who, as well as his wife, was Swiss by birth and resided near the same village.

William received his first schooling in a little log-cabin, which served as the educational center of the village, and where a cousin of his was the schoolmaster. At the age of seven, he was placed to board with a Quaker family in Georgetown, D. C., where he attended the local classical academy. A year later, we find him at the Latin school in Newport Church, Charles county, about forty miles from Bladensburg.

In 1783, he was sent to the school of the Rev. James Hunt, the Presbyterian minister in Montgomery county. Here it was where William, during a period of four years, received the principal part of his education, being carried through all the Latin and Greek, which at that time usually were taught in grammar schools, in addition to receiving instruction in geography



WILLIAM WIRT

and mathematics. Despite his rather shy and timid disposition, young Wirt displayed great aptitude in his studies, and exhibited a keen interest in literature.

During court week at the Montgomery Court House, it was customary for the boys of Reverend Hunt's school to attend court for a day and listen to the pleas of the various lawyers. Finally, the boys became so interested that they determined to have a court of their own. Wirt, who already had distinguished himself by writing several essays, was called upon to draft a constitution and by-laws for the proposed moot-court. This task our eleven-year-old boy very creditably performed. Under the skillful leadership of Reverend Hunt, the boys engaged in animated debates. During the course of delivering their speeches, the boys were duly instructed in tone and gesture, so essential to successful oratory. William Wirt, who was to no little extent handicapped by his extreme timidity both of speech and action, as well as by his somewhat delicate health, gradually overcame these difficulties so as to be able to establish himself as a ''practitioner'' of eminence in the school's miniature court. Thus, in part, was laid the foundation for his legal career, in which, in later years, he was destined to be eminently successful.

In 1787, when Reverend Hunt's school was disbanded, young William, then only fifteen, abruptly found himself confronted with the problem of earning a living. His little patrimony being insufficient either to support him at college, or to meet the expenses of a professional education, he accepted an invitation to become a private tutor in the family of Benjamin Edwards, who later became a Congressman from Maryland, and whose son, Ninian, in after years represented the State of Illinois in the United States Senate. It speaks well for the qualities of our future attorney general that Mr. Edwards' invitation was based on the sole strength of the moot-court constitution, which young William had drawn up at the Hunt school, and which appeared to Mr. Edwards to betray great possibilities in its author. For almost two years, Wirt remained in the home of Mr. Edwards, preparing the latter's son and nephews for college, at the same time continuing his own studies with the aid of the small library at his disposal.

In the spring of 1790, after passing the winter in a southern climate because of his health, Wirt commenced the study of law at Montgomery court-house, and two and a half years later, at the age of twenty, he obtained his license to practice. He removed to Culpeper Court House in Virginia, where he launched his professional career. Still being hampered by his diffidence of speech, he set out to overcome these difficulties by careful attention and judicious practice, and, after a few years, completely rid himself of any defects in speech, and was able to hold his listeners spellbound with a smooth and vivid flow of eloquence.

In the course of a year or two, he extended his practice to the neighboring county of Albemarle, where, in the spring of 1795, he married Mildred, the daughter of Dr. G. Gilmer, one of the most eminent physicians of the day. His marriage caused his removal to the estate of his father-in-law at Pen Park, near Charlottesville, where he made the acquaintance of many celebrated persons of the highest social standing, intimate friends and frequent visitors of Dr. Gilmer. It was here that Wirt met James Monroe and Thomas Jefferson, whose cordial friendships he gained and cherished throughout their respective lives. His social intercourse with such outstanding personalities greatly enhanced his mental powers. His business increased rapidly, and he soon was considered one of the best lawyers in the circle of his practice.

Four years after his marriage, he lost his wife to whom he had become tenderly attached. It was with a view of lessening his sorrow, that his friends prevailed upon him to move to Richmond, where, in the same year, he was elected clerk of the House of Delegates. This, his first public office, he held for three years, without wholly relinquishing his practice of law, and it was during this time that he was retained as one of the defense counsel in the famous Callender trial, at which no little sensation was created when he and his associates suddenly left the courtroom in the midst of the trial, charging the presiding judge with being biased.

In 1802, upon the division of the Virginia Chancery Court into three parts, and the consequent appointment of two new chancellors, the legislature of Virginia gave the then only twenty-nine-year-old lawyer an unexpected proof of confidence by appointing him to one of the vacancies, an office which required weight of character and integrity, as much as extensive attainments. This appointment necessitated Wirt's removal to Williamsburg, Virginia. In the fall of the same year, he married a second time. Considering his salary inadequate to support a family, he resigned the chancellorship in order to again devote himself to a more lucrative law practice.

First at Norfolk, and subsequently, in 1806, once more at Richmond, the sphere of his business, as well as his reputation, increased with every new case he tried. At the instance of President Jefferson, he was retained to aid the prosecution in the celebrated trial of Aaron Burr, having already established himself as one of the outstanding lawyers of that day. While the prosecution found itself unable to prove any overt act of treason on the part of Burr, and the verdict had to be one of not guilty, yet it must be conceded that Wirt's principal speech caused the individual triumph of the occasion to belong to him. In his address to the jury, he painted a most vivid picture of Burr, in itself a masterpiece of oratory. It was not long thereafter that he was the recognized head of the Virginia bar.

During the winter session of 1808-09, Wirt served as a member of the Legislature of Virginia. He appeared at all times to prefer the more congenial pursuits of his profession, and, for a period of almost ten years, neither the urging of his friends, nor the prospect of popular honors, could induce him to abandon the path of professional life for the more turbulent field of politics. Not even President Jefferson's suggestion that he become a member of Congress, found favor with this brilliant Virginia attorney.

The law, however, was not Wirt's only occupation. Despite his ardent devotion to the legal profession, he always had cherished an ambition for literary fame. This he achieved to a certain extent by the publication of sketches, essays, and short stories, some of which enjoyed a comparatively wide circulation, and an unexpected popularity. Most of Wirt's literary contributions appeared during the period between 1800 and the time of his appointment as Attorney General of the United States in 1817. *The British Spy* was a series of letters appearing first in the *Richmond Argus* in 1803. Similar series of essays were *The Rainbow* (1804), and *The Old Bachelor* (1812), both of which originally were published in the *Richmond Enquirer*. *The Blind Preacher*, another of his better known literary works, has been translated into several languages. Probably his best work is his *Life of Patrick Henry* (1818), a biography on which he had been working for more than a decade.

In 1816, William Wirt was appointed United States Attorney for the District of Virginia, and, in the autumn of the following year, when James Monroe became President of the United States, he acceded to the President's pressing offer and accepted the portfolio of the Attorney Generalship. This appointment marked the advent of the most illustrious chapter of his career. With John Marshall as Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, at a time which witnessed many important decisions under the Constitution, the Attorney General was bound to play an important role in the judicial life of the country. Quite contrary to present day practice, he took an active part in many of the more important cases before that court. At the same time, he also was actively engaged in private practice, not only before the Supreme Court, but also at the Baltimore bar, to which he had been admitted in 1818, and where at the time he was building up an extensive practice.

Longer, by many years, than it ever has been held by any other, and amid difficulties of no mean description, William Wirt occupied the office of Attorney General of the United States throughout the administrations of Presidents Monroe and Adams.

With the accession of General Andrew Jackson to the Presidency in 1829, Wirt resigned his post and retired to Baltimore, where he continued the practice of law, his business ofttimes calling him as far north as New York and Boston.

His political life, however, was not yet destined to be at end. A National Convention of the opponents of Jackson's administration was to be held at Baltimore in December, 1831, and Wirt was called upon to represent the National Republicans of the Congressional district in which the City of Baltimore then was located. Before the date set for the convention had arrived, Wirt, much to his surprise, had been nominated as candidate for the Presidency of the United States by the Anti-Masonic Party, whose delegates had assembled in convention at Baltimore three months earlier. He accepted the nomination but in the ensuing four-cornered contest which followed in 1832, he only received the seven electoral votes of the State of Vermont, out of a total of two hundred and eighty-six votes cast.

Wirt had now passed his sixtieth year. His constitution was visibly beginning to give way under the demands made upon him in his profession. The strains of the recent political campaign, as well as the loss of his favorite daughter, bore heavily on him, and, together with the financial loss experienced in settling a large number of German immigrants in Florida, only increased his desire to be relieved of some of his professional burdens. He still regularly attended the usual terms of the Supreme Court at Washington, but from his correspondence it would appear that he fully realized that he rapidly was nearing the end of his career. "When I shall be called to leave them," he wrote in December, 1833, "I consider it as merely a parting for the present visit, to meet under happier circumstances when we shall part no more."

Two months later, he was taken ill at Washington and on the morning of February 18, 1834, William Wirt closed his eyes forever. His funeral well attested the universal regard in which he was held. In the procession were seen the President and the Vice-President of the United States, members of the Cabinet, and the Supreme Court, and Congress paid him the signal honor of adjourning in order that its members might attend his remains to the grave.

Thus ended the life of a man whose nobility of character and sweetness of disposition created friends for him wherever he went. A powerful orator, he had the art of swaying the courts and juries with a master's spirit. The principal traits of his eloquence were clearness and force in laying the foundation of an argument, and the steady pursuit thereof through the track of logical deduction. There are but few, who, in power of observation or facility, and beauty of expression, may claim to be ranked with William Wirt.

G. A. M.

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"Eight Great American Lawyers," by Horace H. Hagan, chapter iii, p. 27.
"Biographical Sketch of William Wirt," p. 82, prefixed to William Wirt's *The Letters of the British Spy,* by Peter H. Cruse, 10th ed., p. 260 (1856).
Reports of the United States Supreme Court, at the time when Wirt was arguing cases before that tribunal.

DR. HENRY BANGA

Surgeon, Gynecologist, and Pioneer in Antisepsis

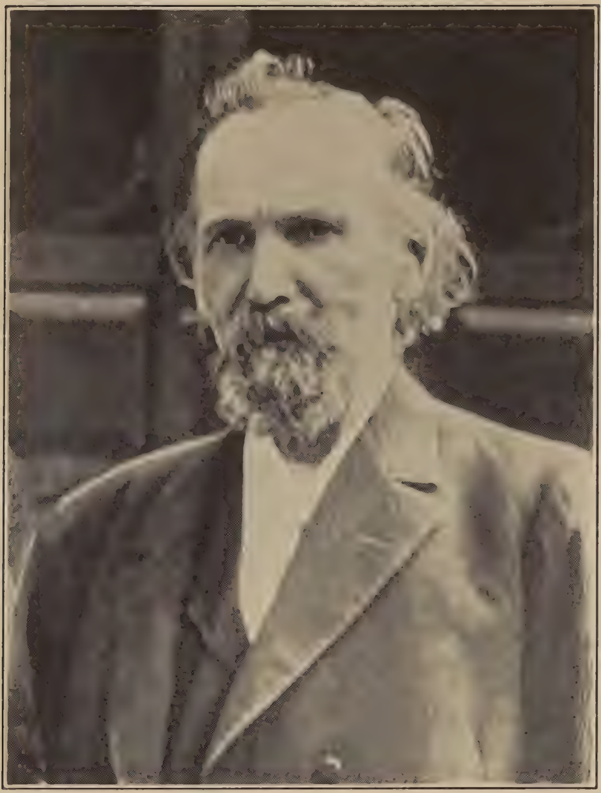
Born February 14, 1848, at Liestal, Switzerland.
Died December 24, 1913, in Chicago, Illinois.

HENRY BANGA introduced antisepsis into Chicago and the West. It is difficult for us to realize what an enormous step forward this implied, and what an amount of sickness, suffering and death were thereby averted. It is impossible for us to understand that, in spite of the evident value of his work, he was not spared the bitter disappointment and enmities which are the lot of the pioneer.

True, Dr. Fenger had prepared the field, yet Fenger conceded that the theory and especially the applications of antisepsis into practice, had become so much more clear and effective, as worked out in Europe, partly through the direct influence of Banga as we shall see later on, that Banga's results were, after the first few hard months, much more evident. Drs. Schmidt, Fenger and others gladly admitted this, while others disagreed. Some even went so far as to accuse Banga of untruthfulness. Today, we cannot understand why this clear-thinking man, with his convincing arguments, should have found such fierce opposition in the face of the overwhelming evidence of the principles that every high-school pupil now takes as a matter of course. It shows that Truth has no power in itself, except for those who represent and defend it.

His second claim was his high standard as a man and as a physician. He was a wonderful character, of high intelligence and unflinching uprightness. Only the welfare of his patients guided his actions. There is no question that he might have lived longer had he thought more of his own welfare than that of his patients.

Christmas Eve, 1913, Dr. Henry Banga, born February 14th, 1848, in Liestal, Switzerland, died suddenly after having performed a long and tedious operation. No one who saw him that day, walking along with his elastic and erect gait, would have



HENRY BANGA

thought that his end was so near. He lived a wonderful and eventful life and died as he wished to die, "with his boots on."

During the forty years that he practiced in Chicago, Banga never was prominent in Swiss societies, yet the White Cross in the Red Field rose in the estimation of everyone who came in contact with this kindly man.

His father was at the head of the Government of the newly erected Canton of Baselland, after that section had been separated from the City of Basel during the Revolution of 1833. He organized the Government and drafted the constitution and, together with Inspector of Schools Kettiger, worked out school laws and regulations, which for thirty years and more became the models for country schools for a large part of Switzerland and southern Germany. They embraced among other innovations, the establishment of district schools. Besides all this work, the elder Banga was an authority in the botany, zoology, mineralogy, and geology of the Jura Mountains, and kept up a large correspondence and intimate contact with the men who were building up those sciences during the forties, fifties and sixties of the last century.

An exceptionally bright boy, such as Henry was, could not help but profit by the favorable surroundings in which he grew up. In school, he was one of the best pupils and had a great but fully unconscious influence on the other boys, through his kind and just character. Even as a boy, he was an aristocrat in body and spirit. Two of his friends, J. V. Widmann and Carl Spitteler (Nobel prize winner), became poets.

None of these details are superfluous, if we want to draw the picture of Dr. Banga as we knew him later on: The ideal physician and friend to his patients, who often kept their eyes riveted for hours on the door through which he was to enter when visiting them; the consolation and hope for the attendants when in difficulty; at operations sure and resourceful; in emergencies cool and energetic.

After graduating from the schools of his hometown, Liestal, he prepared himself for the study of medicine in the higher schools of Basel. In 1870, at the outbreak of the Franco-Prussian war, he was just about completing his studies at the University of Tübingen. He volunteered his services in the medical corps and was accepted. The experience which he gained in two expeditions into France helped to broaden his mental horizon. After graduating in the spring of 1871, Banga became the assistant in gynecology to Professor Bischoff in Basel, and afterward worked with Professor Socin in surgery. Here, Banga used his experience to perfect his ideas on the antiseptic treatment of wounds.

This subject at that time was foremost in all clinics on the Continent and abroad. For more than twenty years, Semmelweiss had shown that ''decomposing organic matter'' carried on the hands of the operator, was the cause of death after many operations.

Later on, during the sixties, Lister introduced carbolic acid. He maintained that the air was the main source of infection.

During the War of 1870, Professor Socin was head surgeon of a large hospital in Karlsruhe, and there Professor Klebs made the first systematic microscopical examinations of the secretions of the wounds. Socin often discussed the results of Klebs's investigation with his assistants. From all sides, the advance toward a solution was progressing, but the key still was missing. Time and again, Dr. Banga spoke of it:

> We were that far, he said, we knew the cause of infections of wounds was self-propagating, organic. But one man sought its source on the hands, another on the sponges with which the wounds were washed, another in the air. Nobody had an idea of the presence of micro-organisms everywhere.
>
> That came ten years later, when the Germans worked out the bacteriological technique and perfected and cheapened the microscope. My views were influenced by other experiences: As a boy I often went into the woods with my father. He showed me a bush, the branches, the leaves, the blossoms. Then he spread a white sheet underneath and began to shake the bush and beat it with sticks. Soon the sheet was covered with all kinds of crawling and running animals, from the tiniest to some half-an-inch long and more. For hours we sat there: my father, my sister and I, and he showed and explained all the different forms of life: eggs, caterpillars, pupa, spiders, plant-lice, ants, etc. The impressions of these demonstrations were deep and lasting.
>
> Later on, at the hospital, the certainty of the presence of living matter even where we do not see it, where we do not suspect it, gave me the conviction that if we want to fight poisoning of wounds due to organic matter, we must look for the source of it not alone on the hands, in the air, on the sponges, but everywhere: on the skin of the patient, in the wound, in the dressings, on our instruments, and all the time, also in our later handling of the wounds and dressings. An occasion to try out these principles presented itself very soon.
>
> I was the first assistant, he continued, while Professor Socin was away for a few days. A young Italian was brought to the clinic badly injured: his elbow was torn open, the bones exposed and street-dirt was ground in all recesses of the complicated elbow joint. According to the teachings of the time, the arm ought to have been amputated at once. Instead, I chloroformed the boy, opened the

wound wide and cleaned it with large quantities of water. Carbolated oil was poured in every pocket of the wound and the wound closed. The dressings, too, were soaked with carbolic oil. The wound healed without formation of pus, and without fever. The boy was discharged in a short time, well and with a completely useful elbow. Professor Socin called it a lucky result of a step in the right direction.

A second patient with an open fracture of the leg was treated according to the same principles, and again the result was quicker and better than had been attained before. After two successive favorable results, the probability of mere lucky coincidence became less, and Professor Socin's, as well as Dr. Banga's expectations ran high. Then came the first catastrophe. A severe attack of typhoid fever left Dr. Banga unable to continue his work and threw him out of the assistantship. A trip to Madeira with a patient strengthened him sufficiently so that he could start to practice; but life in a small town in the mountains, as well as the prospects which it afforded, never could satisfy him.

After a few years, before he had time to build up a practice which would make him independent, the second misfortune in the form of financial difficulties of his father overtook him. He looked for a larger field of activities. He came to the "Land of the Free," and arrived in Chicago in the fall of 1876. Here he met his school friend Arnold Holinger, and that highly educated 1848'er, Dr. Ernst Schmidt, who, entertaining the same ideals as did Banga, remained the latter's lifelong friend, in spite of the difference in their ages. A few years later, Dr. Banga invited his sister to come to Chicago, and she made a home for him for the rest of his life. She, too, was highly educated and an accomplished musician.

While the public soon appreciated the increasing successes of Dr. Banga's operations, the medical profession, however, and even many Germans, were slow in recognizing the theoretical premises and the practical applications of the new antiseptic methods. His American colleagues stood at a distance. They could not and would not believe that this young Swiss had something which was destined to revolutionize not only surgery, not alone medicine in general, but the whole civilized world, in its ideas of sickness, its mode of living, and dressing.

Dr. Banga became surgeon, and later on surgeon-in-chief of the Michael Reese Hospital; and if this institution is today one of the largest, best conducted, best equipped and best financed in the country, it is largely due to his example and influence.

Dr. Banga was asked why he did not write more for publication, and claim credit for what he accomplished. He answered:

> The good is done, what matters who did it. Too much is written. It is time to show by actual demonstration and by example in daily life, what can and what ought to be done.

And certainly he was an example to hundreds of young physicians and patients in attentively listening to complaints, carefully examining, causing as little pain as possible, critically weighing his diagnosis, and treating not the ''case,'' but the patient, like a human being.

It hardly is possible to over-estimate the value of these labors in the Chicago of the seventies and eighties, which had just been built up out of the ruins of the big fire, and which, in incessant hustle and bustle, raised its head way above the surrounding state and country, and cast its eyes to all corners of the world in order to sell the products of its industries.

In the midst of this gross materialism, the gentle and deep idealism of Dr. Banga kindled many a kind thought, and instilled tastes for the good and beautiful, which found gratification in many ways, and which, because of their extensiveness, space and time do not permit to give detail.

These inclinations of Dr. Banga had their origin in his home life, his Swiss surroundings, in school, and at the university, as well as in his careful study of the old and modern classic writers. Many of his friends received a copy of *Marcus Aurelius*, and, for the motto of his life Dr. Banga chose Goethe's: ''Edel sei der Mensch, hilfreich und gut.''

J. H.

Source of Information:

The author's intimate friendship with Dr. Banga during the latter's lifetime, which personal contact covered a period of more than twenty years.

DR. HENRY DETWILLER

Pioneer in Homeopathy in America

Born December 18, 1795, in Langenbruck, Canton of Basel, Switzerland.

Died April 21, 1887, at Easton, Pennsylvania.

AMONG the early pioneers who came from Europe and brought to America the science and culture of the Old World, Henry Detwiller, M.D., has filled a creditable mission. It was from just such careers as his that the American school of medicine laid its firm foundation which later challenged the world for supremacy.

He left the village school in Langenbrück at the age of thirteen and continued his studies at the French Institute in St. Imier, Switzerland, where he remained for two years. He chose medicine for his lifework, and after studying privately under Laurentius Senor, M.D., a graduate of the University of Wurzburg, he matriculated in the spring of 1814 at the University of Freiburg, Germany. Here he studied medicine and surgery for five consecutive semesters.

Following his spirit of adventure and love for the natural sciences, he decided to pursue his work in the New World. In the spring of 1817, we find him the ship physician of the "John of Baltimore," which set sail for America from Amsterdam.

With a passenger list of about 400 French refugees, fleeing the Continent after the defeat of Napoleon, everything went well until the oppressing heat south of Bermuda, caused the outbreak on board of an epidemic of dysentery, cholera morbus and other complications. This gave the young doctor such distinguished patients as General Vandamme, of Napoleon's army, Dr. Munges, of Philadelphia, and Anthony Drexel, Sr.

After the ship's arrival and quarantine in Philadelphia, he abandoned his idea of going into the Indian country and upon the advice of Joseph Bonaparte, settled in the Lehigh Valley of Pennsylvania, where German was mostly spoken, and in 1817 associated himself with Dr. C. H. Martin, of Allentown, Pennsylvania.

It was from this early epoch in Pennsylvania that many of the stories of the opposition to the doctor's original and daring operations in medicine emanated.

During the fall and winter of 1817-18, a disease broke out in Lehigh and the adjoining counties in Pennsylvania, which baffled the most renowned physicians. The suffering was intense and whole families were afflicted and attended in convalescence with frequent relapses. This disease was erroneously diagnosed as ''bilious colic.'' Dr. Detwiller proceeded on scientific grounds taking up his abode among the stricken families, and, following the routine and habit of daily life, discovered the disease to be leadpoisoning, caused from the litharge glazing on vessels and earthen pots, in which their apple butter was made. The resultant skill, together with his successful antidotal treatment, brought him into prominence as one of the country's outstanding physicians.

As a country doctor and scientist, we see him settled in Hellertown in the beautiful Saucon Valley, where, in December, 1818, he was married to Miss Elizabeth Appel. He had three sons and four daughters by this union.

His collection of ''Flora Sauconnonsis'' attracted the attention of such distinguished botanists as Prof. Thomas C. Porter, Dr. de Schweinitz and Dr. Huebner. His herbarium was presented to Lafayette College, but was lost together with many of his original water-color drawings, when Pardee Hall was destroyed by fire. However, his comprehensive collection of the fauna of Pennsylvania now is in a good state of preservation in the collection of the Basel Museum, in Switzerland, where a recent traveler counted more than a hundred of these zoological specimens.

For sending these exhibits to Switzerland, boxes made of bird's-eye maple were used. The beauty of this wood at once was recognized by the Swiss artisans and its introduction into Europe followed.

Among his outdoor equipment for the collecting of ornithological specimens may be mentioned his four-barrelled shotgun, which was made in Paris from his own designs: one barrel for fine shot; another for coarse shot; a third for a small calibre rifle ball; in the fourth he used quicksilver or metallic mercury so as not to break the delicate feathers or frail wings of the humming-birds and other desired winged specimens.

During his career, the application of hypodermic medication was begun. The methods that were originally used consisted of denuding or scarifying the skin, also areas laid bare by blistering. These practices were utilized to introduce medication which was applied directly to the deeper tissues for absorption into the blood stream.

When the hypodermic needle was developed, he was one of the first in America to adopt this important new method. Being a true pioneer, he tested these innovations, to which there developed as much opposition as was the case in the utilization of the method of vaccination of Jenner, and then, finally, the introduction of ether as anesthetic, which he had adopted long before its general acceptance was recognized.

Ten years after his location in Hellertown, on July 23, 1828, he gave the first homeopathic prescription in this country. This act at once made him the pioneer of the new art of healing in America. Many physicians became interested; among others being noted Drs. Becker, Freytag, and Romig.

In 1836, Dr. Detwiller returned to Europe to obtain aid for the new college of medicine at Allentown, Pennsylvania, which had been opened in 1835—the first of its kind in America. During this sojourn, he made the acquaintance of Hahnemann, who accorded him a reception in Paris, where he met other eminent physicians and scientists, including Schoelein, Oken, and Schmitz. He re-visited his alma mater and obtained his medical diploma, which by law his age had prohibited him from receiving at the time of his graduation.

In 1852, he removed his offices to Easton, Pennsylvania, where he had to overcome the prejudice against homeopathy. Assisted by his son, Dr. J. J. Detwiller, he enjoyed a large and successful practice.

He was one of the founders and a member of the faculty of the North American Academy of the Homeopathic Healing Art, now the Hahnemann Medical College of Philadelphia.

He visited Hahnemann on two occasions, and upon one of these he was to have been the recipient of a marble statue—life size—by the renowned sculptor, David, but the marble was lost en voyage.

As a sidelight into his many other fields of activity, may be recorded his interest in the manufacture of pig-iron. He was associated with most of the blast furnaces and rolling mills of the Lehigh valley. He was president of the North Pennsylvania

Iron Company from the time of its organization in 1869, until 1873. Together with David Thomas, he organized the Thomas Iron Company at Hokendauqua, Pennsylvania.

During his thirty-four years in Hellertown, he was school director for fourteen years, and president when the introduction of the free school finally was established in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, a cause for which he had worked so hard to accomplish.

About three weeks before his demise, he had a bad fall, but attended to his patients until the very last, giving directions for treatments from his death-bed, where on April 21, 1887, he passed away at the age of 92 years, and at the time, probably was one of the oldest active practitioners in the world.

F. K. D.

Sources of Information:

Dictionary of American Medical Biography (1928).
The History of Easton, Pennsylvania.
Contemporary Biography of Pennsylvania, Vol. I (1889).
Detwiller family papers.

PROF. SAMUEL NICKLES, M.D.

Union Army Surgeon During Civil War, and for Twenty-Three Years Professor of Medicine in Cincinnati, Ohio

Born August 8, 1833, in Cincinnati, Ohio.
Died April 21, 1908, in Cincinnati, Ohio.

HIS parents, Francis and Mary Winkelmann Nickles, left their home in the Canton of Berne shortly after their marriage, and in 1825 settled in Northeastern Ohio. Samuel was only two weeks old when his father was drowned in the Ohio river, and his mother was forced to provide for her four small children. Later they lived in Cincinnati, Ohio.

In spite of her poverty, she managed to give her son as good an elementary education as might be expected in those days. He was talented and eager to learn. After he was forced to leave school and help support his mother, he still took advantage of every opportunity to continue his education. He was employed in a commercial concern whereby he was able to financially aid his mother, and during his spare time he studied medicine in the Eclectic Medical Institute of Cincinnati.

He graduated in 1856, and went into general practice for a few years. During the Civil war he enlisted in an Ohio regiment as a physician and surgeon. In 1865, he completed his education, and received his M.D. degree from Ohio Medical College.

In the same year, his efficient work brought him to the attention of the college, and he was appointed Demonstrator of Anatomy, and for thirty-three years was connected with that institution. In 1869, he became professor of physics and pharmacology. From 1874, until his resignation in 1898, he taught general medicine and therapeutics. In 1893, he was elected president of the Academy of Medicine, which position he held until his resignation in 1898. Because of his thorough knowledge of materia medica, his most important work was accomplished as an instructor of medical sciences. His classroom methods were ingenious, and created in his students a desire to enter deeply into the subject which he was expounding.

Dr. Nickles' activity was not confined to teaching, for he contributed to current medical literature. Being familiar with the German language, he was able to reveal the treasures of German works to an English speaking public. Among those which he translated was Emil Siegle's *Treatments of Diseases of Throat and Lungs by Inhalation.*

After his retirement, he became more interested in German natural scientists and philosophers, Ernst Haeckel being his favorite.

Dr. Samuel Nickles died in 1908 of various complications of influenza. As we have seen, he was an authority of great influence in his chosen field, but his fine personality and broad interests were not confined to it. This Swiss was a real power in the progress of the United States.

H. R.

Sources of Information:

Personal acquaintance of the author.
American Medical Biographies by Kelly and Burrage.

ALBERT J. OCHSNER

DR. ALBERT J. OCHSNER

Surgeon, Writer, and Designer of Hospitals

Born April 3, 1858, at Baraboo, Wisconsin.
Died July 25, 1925, in Chicago, Illinois.

DR. ALBERT J. OCHSNER was a well-known surgeon of Chicago for more than thirty-five years. The number of books he wrote, and his co-editorship of the monthly publication *Surgery, Gynecology and Obstetrics,* made his name known far beyond the limits of his city, state and country.

Albert J. Ochsner was born April 3, 1858, in Baraboo, Wisconsin. His father was Henry Ochsner, his mother Judith Hottinger, both from Richterswil, Zürich. They were among the Swiss pioneers of that part of Wisconsin.

Dr. Ochsner went through the schools of his home town, obtained his degree of Bachelor of Science at the University of Wisconsin in 1884, and his Doctor of Medicine at Rush Medical College of Chicago in 1886, after which he was interne in the Presbyterian Hospital of Chicago for one year. During the years of 1887 and 1888, he studied at the universities of Vienna and Berlin, and the Swiss universities of Zürich, Berne, and Basel.

After his return to Chicago, in 1888, he began to practice medicine and, in the same year, married Marion H. Mitchell. Besides his practice, he began medical teaching and was instructor of surgery at Rush Medical College from 1889 to 1895.

From 1900 to 1925, he was professor of clinical surgery at the University of Illinois. His main work was done at the Augustana Hospital, of which he was chief surgeon from 1891 on, and at St. Mary's Hospital, of which he also was chief surgeon, from 1896 until his death. The new Augustana Hospital in Chicago, is the result of, and a monument to, his untiring efforts.

He was a member of many medical societies, and president of several. He was an honorary member of the Swiss Surgical Society. Besides his membership on the editorial staff of *Surgery, Gynecology and Obstetrics,* he was the author of *Handbook on Appendicitis; Clinical Surgery for Instruction of Practitioners and Students,* of which three editions were printed; *Thyroid, Parathyroid and Surgery of the Thyroid; Treatise on*

Surgical Diagnosis and Treatment (1918), and *Organization, Management and Construction of Hospitals.*

His first books are of interest only to the medical profession, and show his wide knowledge of the literature, and give proof of his own careful observation and investigation. His last work, however, is more for the general public, and reveals him as a public-spirited citizen, perhaps a consequence of his Swiss descent, of which he always was proud. He spoke his ''Züridütsch'' fluently. His books were, of course, based on American conditions, and required years and years of study of all phases of the building trades, architecture, plumbing, sanitation, ventilation, furnishing, housekeeping, dietetics, conditions of public charities, etc. His advice was sought by municipal, county and state governments in the construction of scientific and research institutions. He made many valuable contributions to the science of surgery, but his modesty was such that his name was associated with but few of his discoveries. He early recognized the direct relationship between the tubercle bacillus and scrofula, and after removing scrofulous glands from the necks of patients he also removed the tonsils, which he believed to be the main source of the infection. He was one of the first medical men to hold that rheumatism and similar diseases have their origin in defective teeth. He first pointed out that in the case of femoral hernia, if the sac was set free and ligated and dropped back by raising the foot of the patient's bed, sutures were unnecessary. The surgical condition, however, with which his name is most closely associated is the treatment of acute spreading septic peritonitis, resulting from acute perforating appendicitis. He pointed out that sufficient distinction was not made between these two conditions and showed that the removal of a perforated appendix in the face of active, spreading peritonitis frequently did more harm than good.

Dr. Ochsner was the first president of the Clinical Congress of Surgeons of North America and a founder of the American College of Surgeons. The pledge of members of the latter not to practice the division of fees was prepared by Dr. Ochsner, and he was most rigid in its enforcement. The pledge has been characterized as ''The Sermon on the Mount in Medicine.'' He died of pneumonia, July 25, 1925. J. H.

Sources of Information:

Personal acquaintance and contact with the subject.
The National Cyclopedia of American Biography, Volume XX.

NICHOLAS SENN

DR. NICHOLAS SENN

Professor of Surgery; Author of Medical and Surgical Works; and Reformer of Medical Education

Born October 31, 1844, at Buchs, Canton of St. Gall, Switzerland.
Died January 2, 1908, in Chicago, Illinois.

MANY physicians and surgeons of Swiss origin have achieved success in the United States. Some, in an idealistic way, have found their happiness and satisfaction in the results of their skill at the sick-bed; others were prominent as teachers and in public life; still others were successful in acquiring a fortune.

Dr. Senn excelled in all three. In the operating room, he was cool-headed, firm and ingenious in difficult situations. His patients adored him. Concerning his ability as a teacher and writer, we can safely say that medicine, and especially surgery in America, would not be what it is today, without Senn. And that the financial success was not lacking is demonstrated by the princely gifts he made to libraries and educational institutions. All this he accomplished, not alone because he had the advantage of the thorough training and preparation afforded him by the Swiss schools and universities, but by his own hard work.

He studied in Europe *after* he had graduated in America. Still he gladly admitted that it was the innate Swiss characteristics, namely: relentless, unswerving prosecution of the aim which he had recognized as the right one, and self-sacrificing devotion to public welfare, which enabled him to succeed in the face of all difficulties. In his room, the White Cross in the Red Field always hung beside the Stars and Stripes. Just as Senn was proud of his Swiss origin, the Swiss may be proud that he was one of them.

Nicholas Senn was born October 31, 1844, at Buchs, in the Canton of St. Gall. In 1851, he came to the United States with his parents and settled in Ashford, Fond du Lac county, Wisconsin. After having completed his elementary education, he taught school for several years. During his pedagogical career he felt a strong inclination for the study of medicine. Accordingly, he enrolled in the Medical College of Chicago and graduated with honors in 1868.

The following year, he married Aurelia Millhouser. Until 1874, he practiced at Ashford, Wisconsin, and then moved to Milwaukee, where he became the house physician of the Milwaukee Hospital, practicing privately at the same time. He made several trips to Europe for the purpose of increasing his knowledge, studying the new antiseptic methods of operating, and the treatment of wounds. His thorough medical knowledge caused him to be repeatedly elected to the office of president of the medical societies of the State of Wisconsin. He graduated from the University of Munich in 1879.

During 1884-87, he served as professor of the principles and practice of surgery in the Chicago College of Physicians and Surgeons, and, in 1890, became professor in Rush Medical College, whereupon he moved to Chicago. In 1887, he was sent as a delegate to the Medical Congress held in Washington, D. C., where he delivered a lecture on the subject of surgery. Soon after, he was appointed surgeon-general of the National Guard of Illinois.

His knowledge of languages was of great advantage to him. The ease with which he read and spoke German gave him access to that vast medical literature, and by virtue of his phenomenal memory he was able to say of any quotation where and when he had read it. However, his great influence on the development of surgery in America was due to his gift as a teacher and as a writer. Every phrase could be printed the way he spoke it; and his manuscripts show few corrections. His publications number almost three hundred. His arguments always were strong and went straight to the point.

When he first went to Chicago most medical schools and colleges graduated their students after a course of two years and a few required three. Recognizing the desirability and value of a more thorough training he requested in 1893 that the regular term of attendance at Rush College be three full years and that a high school graduation certificate be required for entrance. Considerable criticism and protest were aroused. He was accused of wanting to Prussianize a free country.

During the next few years, Rush lost any number of students, but the few, compared to former times, that were graduated, took first place in all competitive examinations, especially at the Cook County Hospital. Wherever a Rush man settled down to practice, others had no chance and had to move. Now, it was no longer a question of the free country, but a question of dollars and cents, and this question was solved by the general public which did not ask for license and certificates, but for results, and was quick to find out where to get them. Chicago at that time had sixteen medical schools. Several of them had to follow in the wake of Rush's lead; the others were wiped out by another very ingenious process which cannot be here discussed, as it was not Dr. Senn's. However, Senn's battle for better education of doctors in Chicago, and thereby throughout the whole Middle West and West, was won after a number of years of hard fighting and a great deal of abuse.

Dr. Senn was a magnanimous victor. In 1894, he bought two large medical libraries, one of Professor Baum in Goettingen, the other of Professor DuBois-Raymond, the great physiologist in Berlin. He presented them to the Newberry Library, which at that time was the main medical library (later transferred to the Crerar). To this he added thousands of volumes from his own library, which filled his own home on Schiller Street from the basement to the garret.

To Rush Medical College, Dr. Senn donated a large six-story building for education and research, and endowed two rooms at St. Joseph's Hospital. So Chicago has a ''Senn Room,'' with the ''Senn Library'' in the Crerar Library, and Rush Medical College has its ''Senn Building.'' This, however, was by no means all that Dr. Senn did in the way of public endowments during the last year of the past century.

During the Spanish-American war, he promptly reported for duty. Ever since he was a young man, he took a great interest in military matters, as has almost every Swiss. Dr. Senn was a typical ''Allemann'' in his exterior carriage, as well as in his way of thinking and acting. Military service to him was a matter of course, and it soon took him to Cuba as chief of the operating staff of the army, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel, after serving for a brief period as surgeon-in-chief of the 6th U. S. Army Corps.

Here he was appalled by the lack of hygiene and sanitary precautions, which resulted in great suffering and death among the soldiers. He did what he could to improve conditions, and for the rest he recorded numerous notes. When the war ended, he published a number of articles in the daily press, showing the great and unnecessary loss of life, together with the fearful inefficiency. The articles were signed by him and written in his usual forceful way. They gave names and facts, for which he had proofs. This forced Congress to investigate, and the War and Navy departments to make fundamental and extensive changes in the medical service, which, during the Spanish-American war, had to a great extent remained in the same condition as was the case during the Civil war.

To Dr. Senn belongs a great deal of the credit for the improved conditions in the medical department during the World war. In military surgery, he was very successful, doing much to improve first aid on the battlefield. He contributed to the treatment of gunshot wounds (hydrogen-gas test), etc.

Dr. Senn held the presidency of the American Surgical Association in 1892, and of the American Medical Association in 1897. Among his numerous large works the following are the most important: *Principles of Surgery, Tuberculosis of Bones and Joints, Syllabus of Lectures on the Practice of Surgery, Tuberculosis of the Genito-Urinary Organs, Medico-Surgical Aspects of the Spanish-American War, The Pathology and Surgical Treatment of Tumors, Practical Surgery,* etc.

Whenever one came in close contact with Dr. Senn, he or she was impressed by his enormous capacity for work, of which we had an example in 1900, when Dr. Banga and the writer returned from a trip through Yellowstone Park and accidentally met Dr. Senn in a Denver hotel. We talked about our impressions of the Royal Gorge, etc., and Dr. Senn told us of his day's work. At 7 A.M. he attended a meeting of a county medical society in northern Colorado. He gave a lecture on some surgical subject, and saw several patients whose diagnosis and treatment he discussed. He had passed the night before in the house of a colleague, twenty miles away, and had journeyed to the meeting in the buggy of his friend. At 8:30, he boarded the train for another meeting, starting after nine o'clock, where he likewise delivered a lecture and operated on two patients. At 11 A.M. he met with a third county medical society still farther south, finishing with a banquet. During the afternoon, he met with still another medical society, and at six o'clock, after two operations in Denver, he attended a dinner given in his honor by the Denver Medical Society, after which he gave an hour's talk on some medical subject. When we met him a little after ten o'clock, he was just leaving the brilliantly lighted dining room. He was in evening dress, and we could still hear the applause.

In spite of this strain, he was the most animated talker of the three for the balance of the evening.

Next morning at 7:30, I went to his room. An empty breakfast tray was evidence of the fact that I had come too late with my invitation to have breakfast with us. Later in the day, he showed me fourteen pages of manuscript for some book that he had commenced after we parted the night before, and four pages he had written that morning. He told me that he had three other meetings pre-arranged for that day, and that many of the doctors whom he met at the meetings on the day previous, had been his students. When I left him he asked me to mail three bulky letters he had written that morning, and said with a smile: ''This is my vacation, you know.''

A biography of Dr. Senn would be incomplete without a few words about his travels. During his many trips to Europe, he never failed to visit Switzerland and his native town and house. He was impressed by the high standard of general education in Switzerland, and especially of Swiss medical science. Other travels took him through Russia, Japan, and to Spitzbergen. In his book on his trip to the polar regions, he shows a keen appreciation of the beauties of the northern landscape. His medical eye was quick to detect evidences of the hard life these northern people lead. His last trip was to the Sierras of South America. Here he overtaxed his heart, which was the cause of his comparatively early death.

Dr. Senn died in 1908. Two sons, both well-known surgeons in Chicago, survive him. In his social intercourse, he was most amiable, and exceedingly kind to his fellow men. In Chicago, a public high school is named in his honor.

J. H.

Source of Information:

Personal acquaintance and contact between the subject and the writer, covering a period of many years.

DR. MARTIN STAMM

Physician and Surgeon

Born November 16, 1847, at Thayngen, Switzerland.
Died May 22, 1918, at Fremont, Ohio.

DR. MARTIN STAMM was born in Thayngen, Canton of Schaffhausen, the son of August and Verena (Bernath) Stamm. He was educated in the place of his birth and in the college of Schaffhausen. While a young man he came to the United States to study medicine at the University of Pennsylvania for two years, returning in 1870 to Switzerland to take his medical degree at Berne. One of his instructors was the noted Professor Kocher. In 1872 he came back to America, and practiced first in a Swiss settlement at Archbold, Ohio, later removing to Wyandotte, Mich. From there he moved to Fremont, Ohio, in 1875.

Dr. Stamm's skill as a surgeon first attracted the attention of Dr. G. Weber of Cleveland, Ohio, himself a noted surgeon, while the latter was a passenger on a train near Wyandotte, Michigan. The train had been wrecked, and Dr. Weber severely stunned. Immediately upon his recovery, he hastened to render help to the other passengers. He observed a young man dexterously caring for the injured. Struck by the latter's deftness and skill, Dr. Weber asked him for his name and address. The young man was Dr. Stamm.

Not long afterwards, Dr. Stamm received a call from the College of Physicians and Surgeons at Cleveland to occupy the Chair of Professor of Operative Surgery. He accepted, and filled that position for several years, when he returned to Fremont and resumed his private practice. Here he founded the first private hospital in Sandusky county, Ohio. In Fremont he developed his surgical skill and achieved renown, which later made his name revered in medical circles throughout the United States. He was a regular writer for medical journals, through which columns he made several notable contributions of his science. Original, inventive, and progressive in his investigations and methods, Dr. Stamm accomplished, with notable success, much to advance the science and practice of surgery.

He was the first surgeon in the United States to perform several remarkable operations of European origin, and was himself the originator of several other methods of surgical treatment. It is recorded that he performed more than five thousand operations for appendicitis alone.

He lectured in many of the medical colleges of the country. Besides being a member of all of the local and state medical societies, he also was an outstanding member of the American Medical Association, and the American Association of Obstetricians and Gynecologists.

Perhaps one of the greatest honors conferred upon him, was his election as a fellow in the American College of Surgeons, an organization comprised of several hundred of the leading surgeons of America.

In 1914, he was chief of the Insel Hospital at Berne, Switzerland. He was there at the outbreak of the World war and remained in Europe to do special war work.

Dr. Stamm was an intellectual and civic leader of his community. A deep, zealous student, he read widely in literature, philosophy, and the sciences. Education and civil government were of particular interest to him. His wide travels, comprising, besides a number of trips to Europe, several voyages around the world; his training; his friendship with prominent men of all countries, and his great fund of information, made him a valued member of the various local bodies with which he was affiliated. He was a most interesting conversationalist.

He served several times on the Board of Education of the Fremont City Schools; and to him may be accredited the introduction of the kindergarten in the public schools, of which William Nicholas Hailmann was one of the pioneers in America.

For many years, Dr. Stamm was a member of the Board of Trustees of Birchard Library; in fact, at some time in his life, he was a member of almost all of the civic organizations established for the betterment of the community. In 1912, he was a delegate from Sandusky county to the Constitutional Convention at Columbus, Ohio. He died in Fremont, Ohio, May 22, 1918.

A. R.

Sources of Information:

Biographical sketch of the subject in *Kelly & Burrage's Dictionary of Medical Biography* (1928).

Data furnished to the writer by Mrs. George W. Haynes, daughter of the late Dr. Stamm, Fremont, Ohio.

ADELRICH STEINACH

Naturalist-Philosopher, Physician, Author, and Historian

Born April 26, 1826, in Uznach, Canton of St. Gall, Switzerland.
Died August 25, 1892, in Brooklyn, New York.

DR. ADELRICH STEINACH was educated in the public schools of his native town, after which he took a course at the Teachers' Normal College in Kreuzlingen, later studying at the College (Kantonsschule) of St. Gall and the Lyceum of Fribourg, Switzerland. While at Fribourg, he was private tutor of the Princess Ghika, of Wallachia. Later, he entered the University of Freiburg, in Germany, where he studied theology, philosophy, and scientific subjects.

During the revolutionary years of 1848-49, he was compelled to accept a clerical position in the governmental offices of St. Gall. Two years later, after the death of his father, he entered the University of Munich, Germany, where he studied medicine and physics under Martinus, Kobell, and Büchner, later continuing these studies in Strassburg and Paris. He received his doctor's degree at Strassburg, and passed the state examination as a physician in St. Gall, Switzerland.

In 1855, Dr. Steinach emigrated to the United States, where, for a time, he stayed in Staten Island with Dr. Ch. Cavelti, a former schoolmate, until he was able to enter the practice of medicine on his own account. He decided to move to Paterson, New Jersey, where there was a good opening for a German-speaking physician. He built up a satisfactory practice there and remained until 1857, when the financial and business depression caused a shut-down of the factories and the removal of thousands of the work-people. He then went to New Brunswick, New Jersey, and later to New York City.

At the outbreak of the Civil war, Dr. Steinach enlisted as a physician in the 103rd regiment, New York Volunteers. Max Tissot, another Swiss, also was a physician in this regiment. Steinach's reports and observations from the field were published in the *History of Medicine of the War of the Rebellion.* He received his honorable discharge at the close of the war with the rank of chief physician of the regiment, after which he resumed his medical practice.

Dr. Steinach devoted his leisure hours to scientific studies, particularly to the Darwinian theory of evolution, which at that time had created a widespread interest. He made extracts from Darwin's theories and published his own views on the subject in his two-volume work, *System of Organic Development,* in the main substantiating Darwin, but demonstrating that Darwin's theory was confined only to the development of creatures and did not consider the origin of matter and of psychic phenomena.

In 1865, Dr. Steinach was married to Wilhelmina Snyder. Nine children were born to them, of whom Dr. William Steinach was a practicing physician in New York City, while two other sons are pharmacists.

When, in 1887, the executive committee of the North-American Grütlibund, an association of Swiss beneficial societies in the United States, was authorized to publish a history of Swiss immigration and of the Swiss settlements and societies, together with biographies of notable Swiss-Americans, Dr. Steinach was chosen to collect and edit the material. The *Schweizer Zeitung,* and *Schweizer-Kalender,* at that time published by John Friedrich, of New York, served largely as media for the collection of the data and material. In 1889, the volume appeared in the German language under the title *Geschichte und Leben der Schweizer-Kolonien in den Ver. Staaten* (History and Accomplishments of the Swiss Settlements in the United States). This volume of 375 pages contains much valuable data and information on the subject, but is of necessity not always reliable, in the light of present-day historical research data.

Dr. Steinach also was the author of some volumes on medicine, including a standard work on children's diseases. He died August 25, 1892, in Brooklyn, N. Y.

A. BA.

Sources of Information:

Dr. Steinach's autobiography in his *Geschichte und Leben der Schweizer Kolonien in den Ver. Staaten* (1889).

Additional data furnished by Dr. Henry A. Steinach, a son of Dr. A. Steinach, of New York City.

GUSTAV BAUMANN

Pioneer of the Modern Hotel Industry

Born July 30, 1853, in St. Gall, Switzerland.
Died October 14, 1914, in New York City.

GUSTAV BAUMANN was born in St. Gall, and received his education in his home city and in Lausanne, and later in England. His first experience in business was gained in the manufacture of embroideries and laces. While he still was a young man, a large Swiss manufacturing concern engaged him as its representative in England. So successful was he in that capacity that his company advanced him to a like position in the United States.

Being a man of unusual power of observation, and possessing a remarkable degree of foresight and business vision, in addition to having acquired, in his travels, a good knowledge of the English language, he realized, soon after his arrival here, the possibilities for the development of good hotels in America.

In Chicago, he made the acquaintance of H. M. Kinsley, proprietor of Kinsley's Restaurant, and became associated with him. Later, he married Kinsley's daughter, who brought him a considerable fortune. In 1893, the firm of Kinsley & Baumann opened the new Holland House in New York City, which soon became a fashionable hostelry and yielded large financial gains for its proprietors.

In 1910, Baumann retired from the hotel business. His father-in-law had died many years previous. It was not long however, before he organized a new company, and, thereafter, it was soon announced that he would operate the hotel that the New York Central Railroad Company was erecting. As president of the Beau-Site Hotel Company, Gustav Baumann became head of the palatial Hotel Biltmore, which was opened to the public on New Year's Eve, 1913.

His remarkable success in the hotel business was not the least attributable to his native faculty of attaching his employees to him. If they served him well, he opened his heart to them, and was always ready to do them a good turn, as the following instance may well illustrate:

Soon after Baumann retired from the Holland House, an opportunity presented itself to his former manager and steward to acquire the Ansonia Hotel in New York. When the question of financing this large undertaking seemed almost insurmountable, Baumann volunteered to assist his former employees and helped them to their feet.

When Baumann opened the Biltmore, a large number of his former staff, and many of the clerks from the Holland House, again accepted positions with him and received promotion. John McEntee Bowman, who had been his secretary and confidential aid, became general manager of the new hotel and after Baumann's death was president of the hotel company.

In addition to his large hotel holdings, Baumann had numerous investments in California. He built a magnificent country home at Greenwich, Connecticut, surrounded with beautiful grounds, named Friedcliff, after the first names of his two children, Elfrieda and Clifton.

In token of his esteem, and in appreciation of the services he had rendered in the development of the hotel industry of America, he was elected president of the Hotel Association of New York City.

In the type of the organization and operation of modern first-class hotels, he was one of the pioneers in this country; and the palatial Hotel Biltmore in New York City stands as a monument to his remarkable success.

A. Ba.

Sources of Information:

Data furnished by the late John McEntee Bowman, president of the Biltmore and Commodore Hotels, to the author.
Obituary in the *New York Times*, October 15, 1914.

THREE PIONEERS IN THE AMERICAN CHEESE INDUSTRY

THE eligibility of these unpretentious men for our biographical pantheon is based not so much on their material accomplishments as individual business men, but more particularly upon their merits as pioneers in the field of fancy cheese-making in America. Their achievements have a more socio-economic significance, rather than a meaning of wealth and power that typifies the American industrialist of mark. The activity of these pioneers is so closely related with the early history of the American cheese industry, that it seems expedient to preface their biographies with a few remarks on the beginning of commercial cheese-making in this country.

In America, where dairy products play such an important factor in the diet of its people, the narrative of the dairy industry and of cheese-making, assumes an important part of the history of America. Also on this continent, cheese-making has been relatively important since the earliest settlements, but it was a farm enterprise for purely domestic purposes until the middle of the nineteenth century, when the factory system was introduced as an improved economical system. There are several claims for the priority of the first cheese factory in America. Research made by the United States Department of Agriculture, however, has resulted in establishing, that the first cheese factory in this country was built in 1831 by Charles Rockwell, of Koshkonong, Wisconsin, followed in 1841 by a second factory founded by A. Pickett, of Lake Mills, Wisconsin, and in 1852, Jesse Williams established the third one at Rome, N. Y. According to present knowledge, the first cheese factory ever erected was in 1815, and was built by R. V. Effinger, in the Canton of Berne, Switzerland. In 1860, an attempt was made in Ohio to manufacture cheese on a commercial basis by one Budlong, who opened a factory at Chardon, in Geauga county, Ohio. While numerous factories had been in operation in different states before 1860, it was not until after the Civil war, that the cheese industry became firmly and generally established. The state of New York, for several decades, was leading in the production of cheese, mainly of the Cheddar type. It was not long, however, before the state of Wisconsin attained an equal position, and finally predominated in the production of cheese in America. The Swiss settlers have contributed a conspicuous share to the successful development of the dairy industry of this country. It is known that cheese-making in Green county, Wisc. had its inception when the Swiss settlers in New Glarus township were driven to it in desperation after repeated crop failures. This region had been a wheat-growing district for many years. But when the price of wheat decreased and particularly when the chinch bugs infested the fields and destroyed the wheat crops year after year, the farmers were compelled to resort to other means. Either cheese, or nothing!—was the recognized alternative.

The wheat fields were seeded with grass and stocked with cattle. Cheese factories were erected and cheese-making rapidly became the main occupation in that section. As a result, Green county has become what now is recognized as the center of the foreign-type cheese industry in America. Green county, moreover, is known to have the highest number of cattle in proportion to population of any county in the Union.

The three principal figures in the early Swiss-cheese industry in America, whose biographies follow herewith, are: Nicholas Gerber, Jacob Karlen, and Gottlieb Beller.

Nicholas Gerber

Born, 1836, in Steffisburg, Canton of Berne, Switzerland; died, May 8, 1903, in Monroe, Wisconsin.

Nicholas Gerber learned the trade of cheese-making in his native country. He came to America in 1857, locating first at Boonville, Oneida county, N. Y., where he introduced the manufacture of Limburger cheese. Six years later he removed to Wheeling, near Chicago, and opened a cheese factory. Meeting with scant success, he decided to vacate and try his fortune on the green hills of Wisconsin, where in 1868 he built a Limburger cheese factory on the farm of Albert Bäbler, in New Glarus. A year later, he branched out to the Dietrich Freitag farm in Washington township with a second factory, making Swiss cheese, and in 1870 opened a third factory, for Limburger, in the same town.

Equipped with a thorough knowledge of his trade, and imbued with a firm confidence in the future of the cheese industry in America, he persuaded his compatriots in Wisconsin to build cheese factories and to collect by outright purchase all surplus milk from the neighboring farms. At first the farmers did not respond favorably to this scheme. Many had made cheese on their farms from the milk of their own herds, and were satisfied, fearing besides, that the peculiar process of making Swiss cheese, which had not varied for centuries, would not yield advantageously to the factory system. Experiments, however, proved that their opinion was in error, and that cheese of better quality and greater uniformity could be made by this new method.

Gerber gradually and persistently penetrated with his idea and in time conducted a chain of factories, in which he produced over one million pounds of cheese yearly. The influence which he exercised upon the farmers' situation began to be generally recognized and appreciated, although in the years following, rivalry in business deprived him of some of the credit he deserved, for it was due to his initiative that dairymen began to prosper by being able to sell their milk, or cheese, and receive cash for their products.

Gerber now enjoyed a great popularity, as the interest in the development of his idea grew to the advantage of all concerned. The infant industry which he nursed with great care, experienced such a rapid expansion, that in the course of a short time, its production far exceeded the still lagging demand. This resulted in a veritable panic, and in the eventful years to follow, Gerber was deprived of his financial rewards. Unfortunately, he did not recover from the losses sustained and failed in 1878. He then removed to Brooklyn, N. Y., but remained for only one year, returning to Wisconsin to deal in cheese factory supplies. In addition, he took over the management there of an inn, known as the "Spring Hotel."

In 1893, he left Monroe to settle in Laverne, Ia., where he again pioneered in the manufacture of cheese. Later he engaged in the retail cheese business, in Omaha, Neb., but owing to ill health, he returned to his former home, Monroe, Wis., where he died on the 8th of May, 1903.

Jacob Karlen

Born January 18, 1840, in Boltigen, Canton of Berne, Switzerland; died January 10, 1920, in Monroe, Wisconsin.

In many respects the history of Karlen's life runs parallel with that of Gerber. He was reared to manhood in his native country and came to America in 1869, locating at Boonville, Oneida county, N. Y. A year later he removed to Hanover, Wisconsin, and soon after to Green county, in the same state, where he became interested in the cheese industry. In 1872, he opened a factory in Jefferson township, Wisconsin, making Limburger cheese. In 1877, he changed his domicile to Jordan, Wisconsin, and finally in 1878, went to Monroe.

Karlen is credited with being the first one in Monroe to experiment with a ''cheese cellar'' for storing and curing purposes, so that the selling season for the product might be extended in order to better control the market's mood. Karlen, like Gerber, established a chain of factories, operating thirty plants at one time. His business gained a wide reputation, and in time Karlen became one of the wealthy citizens of Monroe. His firm, which for a time virtually controlled the local cheese trade, was conducted under the name of J. Karlen and Son, until it was taken over by the Badger Cheese Company, which organization was the result of a consolidation of local concerns. Jacob Karlen was active in business until 1909, when he retired to enjoy the fruits of his labor.

Gottlieb Beller

Born September 3, 1850, in Thun, Switzerland; died April 27, 1902, in Monroe, Wisconsin.

Gottlieb Beller came to the United States at the age of seventeen and settled in Wisconsin. In 1874, following the example of Gerber and Karlen, he started a Limburger cheese factory in Washington township, later extending his enterprise to a second, and then to a third factory. In 1876, Beller (originally Bähler) removed to Monroe and established himself as wholesale dealer. In 1878, he lost his fortune when his concern, the Green County Cheese Manufacturing Co., failed as a result of the panic.

Handicapped, but not discouraged, he re-established his project, and in the course of a relatively short time again operated three factories, which ultimately were increased to nine. In those days, the manufacturing season closed in October, but in 1879, when business slumped and there was a surplus of cheese on the market, he began with ''winter speculating,'' that is, buying up cheese and storing it for later distribution, thereby exploiting the idea of Karlen.

The system conceived by these men was at first ridiculed, but later emulated to such an extent, that it is today a general feature of this trade. Beller reaped a generous harvest from his labors and was able to retire at the age of forty-one. From that period until the end of his days, he devoted much of his time to public affairs. For ten years he was a member of the city council. At the close of his career he left a clean record of honest dealing, not only as a prominent man of affairs, but also as a public officer.

In summarizing the achievements of the Swiss pioneers in Wisconsin, it must be emphasized, that they not only developed a special branch of the cheese industry in America, but indirectly rendered valuable services in developing America's dairy industry in general. Wherever the pioneers advanced in the Northwest previous to commercial cheese-making, they first engaged in the growing of wheat, a pursuit which, in its primitive scope, generally entailed a condition bordering on poverty. The same condition also prevailed among the early Swiss settlers in Wisconsin until Nicholas Gerber, who brought his knowledge of commercial cheese-making from his native country of Switzerland, appeared and induced his countrymen to engage in dairying and the manufacture of cheese, instead of continuing with their hopeless occupation of producing grain under adverse circumstances. Through Gerber and his followers, dairying in general, and cheese-making in particular, brought hope and prosperity to a people who formerly existed under the most dire circumstances.

A. Ba.

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LEON de MONTREUX CHEVALLEY

Pioneer of the Dairy Products Industry of the Northwest

Born December 14, 1854, at Charnex, Switzerland.
Died June 11, 1926, at Chilliwack, Canada.

ALTHOUGH Leon de Montreux Chevalley was not listed a contemporary of the pioneers of the cheese industry of Wisconsin—Gerber, Karlen, Regez, and Beller—he, nevertheless, deserves a place with those men as a pioneer of the dairy industry of the American Northwest as well as of Canada. In contrast to the cheese pioneers, Chevalley had the opportunity to acquire a college education. He specialized in the subjects of agriculture and dairy husbandry, and prepared himself for the pedagogical profession.

After the conclusion of his studies, his first appointment was that of instructor of dairying in Lausanne, and, as a result of this contact, he decided to obtain a more practical experience and to extend his professional knowledge. While still in Switzerland, he changed his vocation, and entered business by accepting a position as superintendent and inspector of dairies of the Nestlé Company's plant in France.

In 1893, Chevalley, together with his family, came to the United States, determined to try out its opportunities along his particular line of work. Upon settling in Portland, Oregon, the romantic legends of the ''wild west'' became a tragic reality for him when he was robbed of all his belongings and, completely destitute, was forced to face an uncertain future. In spite of this misfortune, however, Chevalley, with the aid of a few farmers, succeeded in establishing a butter factory, operated on a co-operative basis, in a small town on the Willamette river.

Soon after this first venture was self-supporting, he moved to Norwalk, in Southern California, where he founded another butter factory. The hot climate of this section, however, did not agree with him, and he decided to return to the vigor and verdure of the Northwest. Thus, he settled in Lacenter, Washington, and established himself as a cheese-maker. This new undertaking soon proved to be a striking success, and he started a second factory at Battleground, Washington. Five years later, Chevalley removed to Mt. Vernon, Washington, where he introduced another dairy industry, and became the pioneer of condensed milk factories in the Northwest. On the very eve of its opening, the factory was destroyed by a disastrous fire, thereby causing a heavy loss. With the assistance of the community, he started to rebuild, and out of the ruins there came a larger and still better equipped plant. The milk-condensing enterprise afforded him a real opportunity to display his ability in his chosen vocation. Hitherto, the farmers in that part of the state had merely struggled along with little or no financial rewards for their hard work, and that, too, in a country of potential riches, for Washington then still was a virgin land, awaiting settlement and cultivation.

Chevalley proved to be the man of the hour. He introduced modern scientific methods of farming and dairying, and created favorable conditions for production and distribution. Thus, Mt. Vernon was changed from a sleepy, out-of-the-way country village, into an important dairy center. Chevalley's beneficial activity was not restricted to economic pursuits; his presence, moreover, also was a blessing, in a moral and intellectual sense, for he practiced and preached the soundest of social and business principles.

The erstwhile professor now came to the fore on the lecture platform, when he disseminated general knowledge on topics which could not help but improve the intellectual status of his neighbors and fellowmen. He arranged musical recitals, encouraged interest in literature and art, and, as a matter of course, became interested and active in political questions. In short, his radiating personality was perceptible in almost all kinds of human endeavor, and his stimulating influence became a factor not only in his own immediate community but far beyond its borders. In 1907, he crossed the border into Canada on another pioneering mission. There he converted the Chilliwack Valley from a virtual desert into one of the most substantial and leading farming districts of Canada. Again, he first set out to improve farming conditions and to create new earning possibilities for the struggling farmers. Then he established a milk-condensing plant, which he successfully operated until 1915, when he sold his interests to the Borden Company. Three years later, he entered upon an entirely different field: the cultivation of the loganberry, which grows so abundantly in that part of the country; hitherto no market had been found for this crop. He conceived the idea of using it for the making of wine. In his earlier days, while living in Italy, he had gained considerable experience as a vintner, and he now drew upon the knowledge he still possessed. He set out to convert his theory into practical results and actually demonstrated the wonderful possibilities of the loganberry. Eventually, he succeeded in creating an enormous demand for this wine, at the same time bringing prosperity into a section which had known only poverty, and thus repeating the admirable achievements which Chevalley already had to his credit in the United States.

His appearance in the Northwest, wherever he settled, proved to be a god-send to the people. He seemed to possess the magic wand of a prosperity-creator, which in turn consisted of his knowledge of dairying and its practical application, together with his aggressive policy of doing a thing which ultimately would prove a boon to the people. His restless nature, coupled with his never-ceasing energy and urge to open up new channels of wealth and riches to the people of the Northwest, would not permit him to retire from active life, and he died in harness on the 11th of June, 1926, at Chilliwack, in British Columbia, Canada. His death closed a truly remarkable career.

A. Ba.

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Obituary by Fred Ornes, a personal friend of Leon de Montreux Chevalley, in the *Mt. Vernon Argus*, June 17, 1926.

THE DELMONICOS

America's Restaurateurs par Excellence

IN no field of business enterprise has the Swiss element exercised a more conspicuous influence than in the establishment and up-building of high-class hotels and restaurants. Many of the most celebrated hostelries and restaurants of the world owe their exalted position and high reputation, directly or indirectly, to Swiss geniuses. To cite only a few instances: Has not Cesar Ritz added a new term to our vocabulary? The noun "Ritz" and the adverb "ritzy" have become universal synonyms for excellence and exclusiveness along this line. And Oscar Tschirky, or "Oscar of the Waldorf," as he is popularly known the world over, has so closely identified himself with the famous "Waldorf" that "Waldorf and Oscar" were inseparably linked together. Gustav Baumann, the founder of the palatial Biltmore Hotel in New York, represents another type to conjure with. Then there were Louis Mouquin, whose restaurant for decades was a favorite Epicurean resort in the metropolis of America; and, above all, the Delmonicos, a name which became a cognomen associated with exquisite food and brilliant social functions.

All this perhaps is quite natural; for has not Switzerland during the past century developed a hotel industry second to none in the world? With its excellent hotels and restaurants, Switzerland also produced expert chefs de cuisine, hotel managers and hotel employees. Some of these ventured forth in that line of business and made their mark in the field of hostelry.

In America, the firm of Delmonico was founded by Giovanni (John), a seafaring captain, who was born in Faido, Canton of Ticino, Switzerland. He settled in New York in 1825, and opened a small shop for the sale of imported wines. In 1827, he sent for his brother Peter, and the two started a pastry shop under the name Delmonico Brothers, at Nos. 21 and 23 William street, New York. They nurtured the American palates to enjoy the daintiest French and Italian dishes. Their success warranted the opening of a branch at No. 70 Broad street in 1832.

In the meantime, they sent for their nephew, Lorenzo, who soon was followed by Siro and Constant.

Their William street shop was destroyed by the great fire of 1835, after which they removed to South William street. The new establishment daily became the rendezvous of the bankers, lawyers, and merchants of the financial district.

When John died in 1842, Peter took his nephew Lorenzo into full partnership. In the following year, the Delmonico Hotel was opened at No. 25 Broadway, on the site of the present Cunard Building; it soon became the best hotel of old New York, and sheltered many of the celebrities of those days, among them Aaron Burr, Jenny Lind, the famous Swedish nightingale, and others. As the residential and business sections of the city changed, so did Delmonicos successively change their location, in order to be in the heart of New York's throbbing business arteries.

In 1855, they opened a restaurant at Broadway and Chambers street; in 1861, another at the northeast corner of Fifth avenue and Fourteenth street; in 1876, their Chambers street establishment was removed to Broadway and Worth street; the Fourteenth street restaurant to Fifth avenue and Twenty-sixth street and, finally, in 1902, their celebrated place at Fifth avenue and Forty-fourth street was opened to the public.

In 1881, when Lorenzo and Siro died, they were succeeded by their nephew Charles, who at first was manager and ultimately a partner and, who, in 1884, gave place to Charles Crist Delmonico. After the demise of the latter, Miss Rosina Delmonico, a sister of Charles, became head of the firm, and her only surviving nephew, Lorenzo Crist Delmonico, assisted her in the management of the business. After death claimed Miss Rosina, the administration passed into the hands of Miss Josephine Delmonico, who was in charge until the establishment was discontinued.

For many years, the Delmonicos conducted an extensive outside catering trade, in addition to their restaurants. They were ever ready, equipped with the necessary personnel and employees and with choice foods of every description, to serve the public fare from the simplest collations to the most elaborate course dinner, furnishing every culinary and food requisite, regardless of distance, or the number of guests to be served at one time.

The Delmonico gained its reputation through the excellence of its cooking, the remarkable selection and quality of its vintage, and the perfection and art of its service. The force of employees which operated their establishments, were trained specialists in their respective branches of service; and through such a method a greater degree of perfection was attained and retained.

It was the Delmonicos who conceived the idea that the fashionable set of New York could be induced to give their dinner parties outside their homes, if they could be assured the privacy and service of their own homes, in addition to more commodious and pleasant rooms and greater facilities for entertainment. This idea proved practical. Delmonico parties became the vogue and their entertainments grew more and more in luxurious and elaborate display. It was the Delmonicos who started the restaurant ''night life'' in New York. All sorts of innovations were introduced by them to satisfy the capricious desires of their patrons.

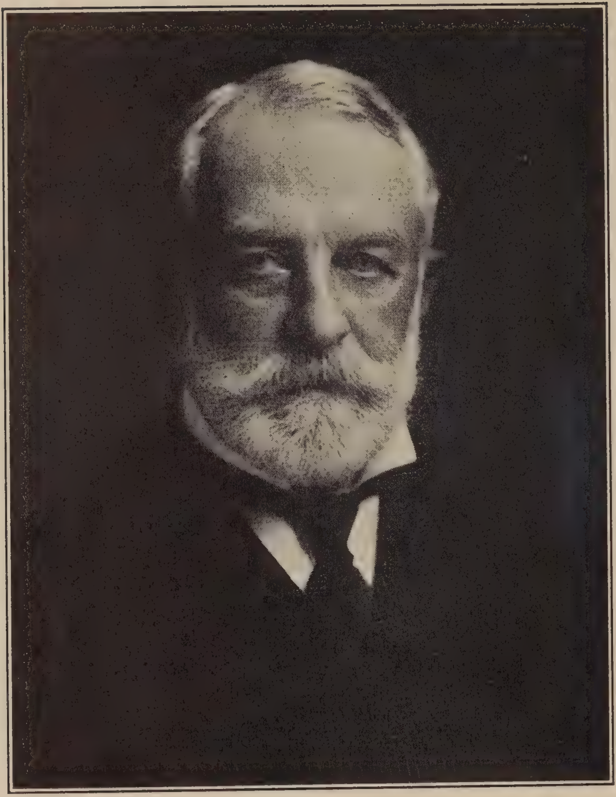
In the rooms and banquet halls of the Delmonico Hotel, the distinguished guests of the city were entertained. Louis Napoleon, later Emperor of France, was one to enjoy its gaiety. Its register bore the names of outstanding men in politics, science, literature, art, and society, during the last century. Abraham Lincoln, Presidents Johnson and Grant, as well as Dickens, Bayard Taylor, Ralph Waldo Emerson, Samuel F. B. Morse, and a host of other celebrities, were entertained there.

When the prohibition amendment to the Constitution became operative, and put a taboo on the serving of liquor in hotels and restaurants, the further operation of Delmonico's establishment was an impossibility; its pre-eminent position was jeopardized. All experts of the culinary art are agreed that fine wines and good liquors, served with meals, constitute a complement of exquisite gastronomic delicacies. When this famous restaurant finally closed its doors in 1922, a brilliant page of American social history was closed.

A. BA.

Source of Information:

Personal interview with, and notes placed at the writer's disposal by, Charles Crist Delmonico, of New York City.



HENRY C. FRICK

HENRY CLAY FRICK

Coke and Steel King; Partner of Andrew Carnegie

Born December 19, 1849, at West Overton, Pennsylvania.
Died December 2, 1919, in New York, N. Y.

LIKE most of our American multi-millionaires, Henry Clay Frick was a self-made man, beginning life in modest circumstances and rising to wealth and power by prodigious toil and shrewd manipulation of affairs.

His first American progenitor was Johann Nicholas Frick, who, in 1767, emigrated to the New World from Switzerland in pursuit of personal opportunities and religious freedom. Henry Clay, of the fourth generation in America, was born at West Overton, Pennsylvania, December 19, 1849. His father, John W., was a farmer of small means, while his mother, Elizabeth Overholt, was a daughter of Abraham Overholt, proprietor of a large farm, flouring-mill, and distillery.

After attending grammar school, Henry Clay went to the Western Pennsylvania Classical and Scientific Institute at Mt. Pleasant, and in 1866, was a student at Otterbein College in Westerville, Ohio, for ten weeks. The rest of his youth was spent in doing chores on his grandfather's farm, and in 1863, between school terms, he filled a position as clerk in the store of his maternal uncle in West Overton, thereby earning his board and lodging. Later, he clerked in stores in Mt. Pleasant. In 1868, he was employed for five months in a Pittsburgh dry-goods store, and then became chief bookkeeper for A. Overholt & Company, at Broad Ford, Pennsylvania, in the center of the Connellsville coke district. While he was thus employed, he awoke to the recognition of the potentiality of coke for use in the iron industries. His thoughts became so absorbed in the problem of the exploitation of this valuable by-product, that he decided to organize a company for this purpose, and, in 1871, the firm of Frick & Company was formed, with Abraham A. Tintsmann and Joseph Rist, as partners.

The company acquired three hundred acres of coal-lands, and fifty coke-ovens, which latter number was increased in the following year by one hundred and fifty.

During the financial panic of 1873, Frick displayed an unusual capacity for business, thus making him a dominating factor in the coke industry. He purchased, or leased all the works and lands offered by discouraged competitors, as well as the interests of his partners, which made him the sole owner of Frick & Co. In 1876, when he took the Carnegies into his business, his firm had acquired 1,026 ovens and 3,000 acres of coal-lands. The company then was reorganized with a capital of $2,000,000, which was successively increased to $3,000,000, and in 1889, to $5,000,000.

By this time Frick & Company owned and controlled 3,500 acres of coal-lands, almost two-thirds of the 15,000 coke-ovens then operating in the Connellsville district, three powerful water plants, thirty-five miles of railroad, and 1,200 coke-cars, and gave employment to 11,000 men.

In January 1889, when Frick ascended to the chairmanship of Carnegie Bros. & Company Ltd., differences arose between the company and its workers (members of the Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers) over a wage scale. After long dispute, the difficulties were allayed for three years, on terms dictated by the union leaders, but the controversy continued to create a disturbing atmosphere among the workers, since Frick had revealed himself as a bitter opponent of organized labor, and demanded the dissolution of the unions in his realm. In 1892, after the expiration of the agreement of 1889, negotiations were renewed for a new wage-scale. A number of fruitless conferences ensued, and finally the strike was declared upon the definite issue of the preservation of the unions.

The strike culminated in one of the worst riots in the history of the American labor movement. Frick himself was shot and stabbed, though not fatally. As the treasury of the unions, through the prolongation of the strike, became depleted, the strike finally was lost, and the workers returned to their old positions as non-union men. Frick had won.

When the storm subsided, he directed his attention to the acquisition of ore-fields, and, with his never-failing business acumen, he succeeded in securing a one-half interest in the Oliver Mining Company, by which he obtained at a comparatively small investment, a supply of high-grade Bessemer ore for his furnaces. This transaction, however, did not meet with the approval of Carnegie, who prophesied its failure, and led to the first rift between the two men. The deal, nevertheless, resulted in a striking victory for Frick and placed the Carnegie Steel Company, of which he was chairman, in an impregnable position.

In 1896, when Oliver and Frick concluded a mining and transportation arrangement with the Rockefellers, their ore ventures yielded an enormous gain, and by 1901, when the United States Steel Corporation was organized, the Carnegie mines represented an estimated value of more than $500,000,000.

Frick's next step was to arrange for a more economical transportation of ore to the furnaces, and to accomplish this he purchased the Pittsburgh, Chenango & Lake Erie Railroad. As a result, ore was transported over the company's own line to Bessemer, then distributed by its own railroads to the blast-furnaces at Braddock, Duquesne, and Pittsburgh.

Frick's concentration plans finally were completed by the acquisition of a fleet of six steamships, which were operated under the name of the Pittsburgh Steamship Company. His company now possessed its own mines, produced its own ore, loaded it onto its own steamers, landed it at its own docks, transported it over its own railroads, distributed it to its own blast-furnaces, smelted it with coke brought from its own ovens, and treated its ores with limestone mined at its own quarries.

By his accomplishments, Frick increased the annual earning capacity of the Carnegie Steel Company from $2,000,000 to $40,000,000, and its annual production of steel from 332,000 tons to 3,000,000 tons. Despite this achievement, Carnegie declared war against Frick, because of certain differences which arose between the two partners. First, Carnegie demanded Frick's resignation from the chairmanship of the company, to which he consented in the interest of harmony. Carnegie then proceeded with an elaborate scheme to bring about Frick's complete elimination by forcible seizure at book value of the latter's interests. Frick resented this manœuver, but was inclined to dispose of his share at a sum to be ascertained by competent arbitrators, or else, to purchase the Carnegie interests on the same terms. Carnegie, however, declined both propositions and, in consequence, one of the greatest law suits ensued. The case, however, finally was settled out of court and on terms by which Frick received more than Carnegie originally had demanded for his own share in the business. From this adjustment emerged the Carnegie Company, embracing the Carnegie Steel Company Ltd., the H.

C. Frick & Company, together with more than 30 subsidiary companies, and, as a consequence of his sale to Carnegie, Frick became one of the wealthiest men in America.

In 1901, Carnegie began to entertain thoughts of retiring from active business. With the aid of Charles M. Schwab, Judge Elbert H. Gary and Carnegie succeeded in bringing J. P. Morgan into a scheme of organizing the United States Steel Corporation with a capital of $1,304,000,000. When the project for this gigantic enterprise was published, a missing link in the chain was detected—the Rockefeller ore properties—which seemed urgently necessary to perfect the scheme. After others had failed to win the Rockefellers, Frick was called upon and successfully closed the deal.

Having converted his ownership in the steel and coke companies into bonds and shares, Frick's career as an executive terminated, and he entered the world of finance. During the business depression of 1907, when the stock of the United States Steel Corporation dropped to a panicky level, Frick, with the vision of a business genius, exploited the situation and bought up all available U. S. Steel shares, and, when the crisis had passed, he again had greatly increased his huge fortune. Aside from his immense holdings in the United States Steel Corporation, Frick was the largest real estate owner in Pittsburgh, and was a director in many of America's foremost enterprises. During his lifetime, Frick never appeared in politics, although offered several opportunities. Social functions also did not appeal to him; he preferred to lead a quiet and unassuming life. As a philanthropist, he was in the front ranks of American benefactors. He is known to have made many generous contributions for educational and humanitarian purposes. In his will, after having adequately provided for his family, he left the bulk of his residuary estate for public benefit. His home on Fifth Avenue, New York, was donated to the public as a museum, together with its art collection, and a trust fund was created for its maintenance. To the City of Pittsburgh, he gave 151 acres of land for a public park and various public institutions, universities and museums, were the recipients of his bequests. A. Ba.

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JACQUES HUBER

JACQUES HUBER

Pioneer of the American Silk Industry

Born in 1851, at Horgen, Switzerland.
Died April 18, 1918, at Lugano, Switzerland.

ALTHOUGH Jacques Huber was born and reared in Switzerland and returned to his native country to spend the evening of his life in search of health, he may duly be accredited as being an American, inasmuch as his activities and life's work were confined to the United States.

Jacques Huber's activity extended beyond the limits of his individual sphere of interest. He was a recognized leader in the silk industry, and through his conspicuous achievements in that line, he won for himself a foremost place in the ranks of American industrialists.

In order to afford a better understanding of the position he occupied in America's industrial organism, and, at the same time, pay tribute to the scores of other Swiss who had added a creditable share to the building up of the silk industry in the United States, it may not be out of place to briefly review the history of the domestic silk industry.

Of the two principal phases of the silk industry: the silk culture and the manufacture of silk, only the latter need be considered in a sketch of the modern epoch. It was King James I. who, in 1609, had the silk-worm and the mulberry tree sent to America; he had conceived the idea of making his American colonies a silk-producing country. However, he only wished to produce the raw silk here; the manufacture was to be carried on in England. For that reason, he discouraged all attempts in America to convert the raw material into the finished product.

Efforts to carry out the King's program were made in different parts of the South, and among those to engage in this field were Jean Pierre Purry of Neuchâtel, and some of his Swiss compatriots. The efforts, which extended over a century, yielded insignificant results, and experience since has shown that America's climatic conditions are not favorable to the silk culture. Even today, under a high protective tariff, raw silk remains on the free list.

The history of the American silk manufacturing industry, however, presents an entirely different aspect. While the first attempts in the manufacture of silk generally met with failure, the introduction of power-looms, together with the enactment of a protective tariff, finally placed the industry on its feet, and soon developed it into one of America's important industries.

The first establishment of its kind was erected in 1768 by William Hanks of Mansfield, Connecticut, "to bring about a silk-manufactory." The raw material then used was a homespun product. The finished article was "a fair quality of sewing silk," while the wastes were woven into homespun cloth. In 1796, a factory for the manufacture of bolting cloth was built at Wilmington, Delaware. The manufacture of silk trimmings was begun at Philadelphia in 1815; and in 1829, silk ribbons were produced at Baltimore, Maryland.

While these enterprises eventually passed out of existence, the silk manufacturing industry in Connecticut survived.

In 1829, the Mansfield Silk Company was chartered and started its operations with improved machinery. This mill holds the distinction of being the first in America to successfully manufacture sewing-silk by power. In the decade of 1830-40, experiments of this sort were most frequent. During this period, the firm of Cheney Brothers at South Manchester, Connecticut, also was founded, and is today the largest manufacturer of silk in America.

In the course of time, other silk manufacturing centers came into existence. In Paterson, New Jersey, the industry started in 1839, and rapidly developed in importance, and here it largely was in the hands of Swiss.

With the growth of the domestic industry, the American silk manufacturers soon realized that only through protective legislation could they effectively meet foreign competition. The Civil war was directly responsible for the prompt and speedy enactment of the necessary legislation. The Government was only too eager to impose heavy duties on all foreign silk goods, in order to provide additional funds necessary in the prosecution of the war. The duties were retained at the close of the conflict, and the character of the tariff changed from one of mere revenue to one of protection. Following this change of policy, there ensued an immediate response of increased activity in all branches of the silk industry.

In 1872, the Silk Association of America was organized for the purpose of promoting the mutual interests of the silk manufacturers of the country. With the dawn of this new era, the manufacture of ''broad silks,'' which prior to this time was unimportant, became the leading factor in the domestic silk industry. It is at this juncture that Jacques Huber appeared on the scene, later to become one of the captains of America's domestic silk industry.

Jacques Huber was born at Horgen, Switzerland, in 1851, in a home of modest circumstances. His father died while Jacques still was in his boyhood. This bereavement brought him the first grave disappointment in his life: that of being prevented from following his inclination to become a physician. Instead, he had to prepare himself for a business career, in order to assist his mother in the support of the family.

After graduating from the grammar and high schools of his native town, he attended the cantonal school college of Zürich, thus being enabled to acquire a higher education.

Upon leaving school, he entered an apprenticeship with the firm of H. Burckhardt-Weiss, silk manufacturer at Horgen, where he spent three years of arduous work, during which he became reconciled with his fate of becoming a business man, instead of a physician. About this time, his driving force made itself manifest and he organized the commercial association (Kaufmännischer Verein) at Horgen. Through this organization he was able to assist many a young man to a wider and more practical commercial education. After serving his apprenticeship, Huber secured a position with a large commercial house in Zürich, where he acquired extensive experience and knowledge in merchandising and selling.

In 1874, at the age of twenty-three, he emigrated to America. He now had a good knowledge of his trade. In New York, he began as stock clerk in the old importing house of Edward Warburg & Company. He fitted right into this organization and rapidly forged ahead to responsible positions, and when, ten years later, the firm was succeeded by H. Sallenbach & Company, Huber was admitted as a partner in the new organization.

It was during one of his regular business trips to Europe that his friend, Robert Schwarzenbach, Sr., offered him the position of manager of his American agency, which Huber accepted, and in 1887, the firm of Schwarzenbach, Huber & Company came into existence. It began operations January 2, 1888, in New York City, as the American distributors for the various Schwarzenbach mills in Europe, and the latter concern's comparatively new factory at West Hoboken, New Jersey.

The development of the silk industry in America, through high protective tariffs, induced foreign manufacturers to establish branch factories in the United States. Robert Schwarzenbach did likewise. His first American establishment began operations with ten hand looms in an old dance hall at Union Hill, New Jersey.

The first article produced was ''Persian noir'' of a good quality; the wage then paid was 30 cents per yard. This venture, after one year's operation, proved a failure. However, the attempt was renewed with power-looms of a French type. This proved successful, and new and larger quarters were secured in the same town.

In 1885, land was purchased for a still larger plant at West Hoboken, New Jersey, the site on which the present mill now is located.

Jacques Huber now became the driving force behind his own organization. Clear-visioned and ever looking ahead, he strongly advocated the establishment of an efficient plant in America. He devoted his resourceful knowledge and never-flagging energy to its consummation with the result that it developed into one of the more important industrial establishments of the country. In this Huber had the generous support and masterful ability of Robert Schwarzenbach to depend on; both recognized the great future of the United States as a manufacturing country. Their enterprise, however, was not spared of many disappointments and setbacks. The business depressions of the fateful years of the second Cleveland administration inflicted their penalties; but during the period following the free silver campaign of William Jennings Bryan, an unprecedented era of prosperity ensued, chiefly due to the enforcement of the Dingley tariff.

This phenomenal growth of the domestic production of silk goods necessarily was accompanied by a rapid decrease in imports. The home manufacturers, in their fortified positions, availed themselves of the opportunity to wrest control of the market from the commission houses; the change was facilitated by the closeness of the mills to the principal markets. Originally, the silk houses in New York generally were sales agents for the foreign or domestic manufacturer. Gradually, these agencies grew into independent commission houses, and covered their requirements by outright purchase, a condition which made the manufacturers dependent upon them.

To emancipate themselves from these intermediaries or wholesalers seemed an economic necessity for every manufacturer; and they eventually succeeded. As a result, the commission houses were forced into the banking and credit-insurance business. Although Schwarzenbach, Huber & Company never had been commission merchants, but rather selling agents, and financially interested in the mills they represented, they nevertheless, also were affected by this transformation.

Jacques Huber, ever alert, promptly adapted himself to the new turn of events and gained free access to the larger retailers and garment manufacturers of the country. The necessity of keeping stock on hand now was shifted from the commission houses to the manufacturers themselves. This new problem tested to the utmost the resourcefulness of Jacques Huber, but he always was master of the situation, as was clearly evidenced by the steady growth of his enterprise, which in time assumed gigantic proportions.

From its small beginning at Union Hill, New Jersey, the concern grew into one of the country's largest manufacturers of silks, which was comprised of the main establishment of Schwarzenbach, Huber & Company, in Union City, New Jersey, in addition to branch mills in Hackensack, New Jersey; Altoona, Juniata, Columbia, Lebanon, Wilkes-Barre, and Blairsville, Pennsylvania; Covington and Front Royal, Virginia; Norwich, Connecticut, and Middletown, New York, besides the city headquarters in New York.

When his health began to fail, Huber retired from the active management of the company in December, 1908, after twenty years of conspicuous services to his firm and the silk industry at large. The firm now was so solidly established that, while the gap Huber left was greatly felt in the organization, it continued to grow and maintain its reputation for quality.

As a man of outstanding success, Jacques Huber was called upon to be of service beyond his immediate business interests. His keen observation and his practical ideas soon attracted the attention of a wider circle. In recognition of his excellent qualifications as an organizer and administrator, he was honored in 1902-03 with the office of president of the Silk Association of America, and at times served the association in other capacities. In the various tariff campaigns during his years "in the harness," he was very active, but for diplomatic reasons refrained from appearing as an official expert. His services as a collaborator in securing the passage of the desired tariff legislation, are described in a letter to the writer by Horace B. Cheney, and which forms a fitting conclusion for this sketch:

> The acquaintanceship between my father and Mr. Huber, commenced, I should judge, somewhere about 1894 or 1895. Mr. Huber never appeared actively, publicly, in tariff matters, or ever testified before Congressional Committees, or presented the arguments even privately to Congressmen. [Huber was one of the representatives of the silk association at the tariff hearing of 1913 (Underwood Tariff) before the Ways and Means Committee and as such was one of the signers of the Association's brief sent to Washington]. He was very retiring in his disposition and feared his foreign origin would militate against him in such relations, but he almost always accompanied my father and myself upon our trips to Washington, and we found his advice valuable, and his judgment very keen.
>
> He was chiefly instrumental in working out schedules for specific rates which were enacted in the tariff of 1897 [and in the Payne-Aldrich tariff of 1909]. It is also my impression, without looking the matter up, that there were specific rates enacted in the tariff of 1894 [the tariff of 1894 provided ad valorem rates, 45% on silks], and that Mr. Huber was instrumental in framing those also.
>
> I did not myself become actively engaged in tariff work until the tariff of 1897, although I did accompany my father and do some work in 1894 on the schedules with Mr. Huber. It was at that time [1897] that I had most intimate association with him, and when he was most active in developing the classifications of the tariff.
>
> He was a most upright, dependable man of a scientific frame of mind, one whom I have always been proud to have been associated with.

A. Ba.

Sources of Information:

The Schwarzenbach Enterprises, With Particular Reference to the Schwarzenbach, Huber Company, New York (1917), edited and privately published by Robert J. F. Schwarzenbach.

Letters addressed to Robert J. F. Schwarzenbach and to the writer by Mrs. Edith Huber, widow of Jacques Huber.

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The Silk Worm, February, 1921, official publication by the Silk Association of America.

American Silk Manufacture (1887), by Wm. C. Wycoff.

The Silk Industry in America (1876), by Linus Pierpont Brockett.

Data obtained by the writer from the Silk Association of America, through the courtesy of its secretary, Ramsey Peugnet.

ADRIAN GEORGE ISELIN

Banker and Philanthropist

Born September 18, 1818, in New York City.
Died March 28, 1905, in New York City.

ADRIAN GEORGE ISELIN was the first member of this distinguished Swiss family to be born in America. From the fifteenth century down to the present day, the Iselins have been an important factor in the commercial, political, and social life of the city of their origin, so that their family record forms a vital part of the history of Basel.

It was not until the beginning of the nineteenth century that this family branched out to the New World to assume an activity not less conspicuous than in the Old World. It was Isaac Iselin, who in 1801, at the age of eighteen, following his inclination for travel, and, at the same time, satisfying his desire to embark upon a career of his own, sailed from Le Hâvre, France, for New York.

Since his stay on these shores was not permanent, it was his son, Adrian George, who had the distinction of being the founder of the American branch of this illustrious family.

Adrian George Iselin was born September 18, 1818, at the country place which his father owned on what now is known as Riverside Drive in New York City. He received a careful education and was well prepared to enter upon a business career. In 1835, his father, Isaac Iselin, together with his family, including Adrian George, returned to Switzerland to resume their abode in his old home city.

Soon after his departure, New York City was partly destroyed by a conflagration, which seriously affected the interests Isaac Iselin had left behind. This made it necessary for him to re-embark for New York in order to resume the active direction of his business. However, at the expiration of one year he permanently retired to Basel, while his son, Adrian George, remained in America.

Adrian George entered the dry-goods importing firm of Cottenet, Barbey & Co., of which his brother-in-law, Henry Barbey, was a member. From this firm emerged the house of Moran & Iselin, engaged in the dry-goods importing and banking business. In 1854, the senior member, Charles Moran, withdrew to found the firm of Moran Brothers, bankers. The affairs of the old house now were carried on under the name of A. Iselin & Co.

In 1864, Adrian Iselin discontinued the dry-goods branch, and gave his entire attention to the banking department. The dry-goods department was taken over and successively continued by Giraud, Barbey & Co., Henry Barbey & Co., Richard Iselin & Co., Iselin, Neeser & Co., and now is conducted under the name of William Iselin & Co.

Adrian Iselin, after a most successful business career, during which he built up his firm to such a degree that it ranked among the foremost banking houses of America, withdrew from his firm in 1878, leaving the active management of its affairs to his sons and grandsons. He remained, however, interested in many other important business and charitable enterprises up to the time of his death. He was one of the founders of the New Rochelle Water Company. Later, he acquired control of the Buffalo, Rochester & Pittsburgh Railway Company, and it was mainly through his efforts and good judgment that it developed into an important coal-carrying road.

In the City of New Rochelle, where the family resides, he and his wife contributed liberally to the erection of churches and schools, as well as to various charitable undertakings. He was one of the founders of the Metropolitan Opera House of New York, supported generously the Metropolitan Museum of Art, the Hospital for the Relief of the Ruptured and Crippled, and was a generous contributor to many other public enterprises. At the time of his death, he was known as one of America's outstanding philanthropists.

A. Ba.

Sources of Information:

Information personally imparted to A. Bartholdi by Rudolph I. Iselin.

Heinrich Iselin of Rosenfeld and His Descendants, privately printed for O'Donnell Iselin, New York (1910), and placed at writer's disposal through the courtesy of A. Iselin & Co.

JOHN LUCHSINGER

Banker, Lawyer and Publicist

Born June 29, 1839, at Schwanden, Canton of Glarus, Switzerland.
Died April 23, 1922, at Monroe, Wisconsin.

JOHN LUCHSINGER was perhaps the most striking personality and an outstanding character among the thousands of Swiss and their descendants in the communities of New Glarus and Monroe, as well as in all of Green county. Men of his sterling character and fine blend of the prime requisites for a successful life: capacity for hard work, earnest endeavor and ambition to forge ahead, probity and integrity, combined with the urge to seek knowledge, wisdom and intellectual achievements, besides material acquisitions, cannot help but make a mark for themselves and be of service to their fellowmen. Indeed, John Luchsinger typified the ideal Swiss statesman of liberal tendencies of the time of Gottfried Keller; but, being reared in America and living his life in a democracy more primitive and uncouth than that of Switzerland, his career was shaped somewhat different from what it would have been in his native land, had it been his lot to remain there.

The Village of Schwanden, in Canton of Glarus, was his birthplace. His parents were John Luchsinger, Sr., and Barbara (Wild) Luchsinger. In 1845, they determined to emigrate to America. An economic depression had taken hold of their home canton, and was the direct cause of a large emigration from Glarus to the United States. It gave birth, in Wisconsin, to the now famous Swiss settlements of Green county, with their cheese and dairy industries, of which New Glarus is the original and most picturesque community.

However, John Luchsinger, Sr., by trade a stone-cutter and mason, first settled in Syracuse, New York, for a short time, whence he went to live in Philadelphia. The gold-mining fever struck him in 1852, and so we find him in California until 1856, when he returned to Philadelphia, gathered up his household belongings and brought his family to New Glarus, which had developed into a thriving Swiss village in the midst of the great forests of Green county. Here the Luchsinger family engaged in farming. But in 1862 John Luchsinger, Sr., died at the age of fifty-one years. His widow outlived him six years, being fifty-eight years old when she died.

John Luchsinger received his schooling principally in Philadelphia, during the family's stay there and while his father was prospecting for gold in California. When twelve years old, however, he was employed in a woolen mill by day and attended school at night. He was seventeen years old when he accompanied his parents to New Glarus. Though city-bred, he readily adapted himself to farming. When his father's death threw the burden of the family support upon him and his younger brother, he did not hesitate or shirk his duty and worked the home farm as long as his mother lived. In the same year that his mother died, he married Elsbeth, daughter of Henry Kundert of New Glarus. Selling his share in the family estate he bought a farm of 184 acres in New Glarus and continued farming for the first ten years of his married life. In 1878, he disposed of his farm and settled in Monroe, the county seat. Here, he bought a small farm of thirty acres, at that time within the limits of the town. During the years 1881-82, Luchsinger engaged in the lumber business in Albany, a neighboring town, but resided in Monroe. Luchsinger's political proclivities and public-spirited inclinations had already come to the fore while engaged in farming in New Glarus. When a school district was organized, he was chosen a member of the school board and district clerk. Later, he was elected a member of the town board, tax assessor, and a member of the Green County Board of Commissioners, becoming chairman of that body in 1879.

As a Republican, he was elected to the legislature of Wisconsin in 1872, and again in 1875, 1876, 1877 and, after a lapse of several years, for a fifth time in 1886.

After taking up his residence in Monroe, he was elected county treasurer in 1882, and re-elected in 1884. During these years he studied law, being admitted to the Wisconsin bar in 1884. He was a member of the Board of Education of Monroe for twelve years and in 1894-96, was mayor of Monroe.

John Luchsinger, while engaged as a farmer, also became interested in cheese-making, and he gave this subject a great amount of study, and materially aided in the development of the cheese industry in Green county and Wisconsin. For a number of years, he was engaged in buying and selling cheese, and became an authority on everything pertaining to cheese and its manufacture. With others, he was instrumental in establishing cheese factories in Green county, and during this time was a good advertiser in advocating the good qualities of cheese and its eminent food values. He thus contributed numerous and valuable articles to the public press on the cheese-making industry.

A valuable and historic monograph on the cheese-making industry and business of southern Wisconsin, entitled *The History of a Great Industry,* was read by him before the State Historical Society in 1898, and printed by the Society in 1899. It has been widely read and has elicited favorable commendation from those most familiar with the subject. His address to the Wisconsin State Dairymen's Association, in 1891 on the subject of *Cheese as an Army Ration,* has been widely copied and published throughout the country.

Luchsinger wrote an interesting monograph on the founding of New Glarus; he translated some of the diaries and papers of the colonists that related to the settlement of this remarkable Swiss colony. These treatises were published by the Wisconsin State Historical Society.

In 1895, at the semi-centennial celebration of the founding of New Glarus, he delivered the English anniversary address, while Rev. John T. Etter rendered the German oration.

John Luchsinger, as can well be seen, was keenly interested in political affairs. He was a delegate to many state conventions of the Republican Party, and, in 1900, a delegate to the National Republican Convention. He was a good orator, being able to speak and write both the German and English languages.

His last official position was that of Probate Judge of Green county during 1918-19, having been appointed by Governor Philipp for the unexpired term of Judge John M. Becker, who had been removed from office.

In 1887, he began a long connection with the Citizens' Bank of Monroe, serving at various times as assistant cashier, vice-president, and president from 1917 until his death. He was also for some time vice president and curator of the Wisconsin State Historical Society. He was a communicant of the Swiss Reformed Church, and stood high in the ranks of Odd Fellowship, of which he was Grand Master of Wisconsin.

John Luchsinger was a man of scholarly attainments, an able lawyer with a good knowledge of his profession, its principles and its rules of procedure. He had an extended reputation as a historical and political writer, and was an authority on cheese-making and the cheese industry.

He was upright, honest, and fair in his dealings with his fellowmen; and, while an ardent and loyal Republican, he was not narrow-minded in political matters, and neither was he bigoted in his religious belief.

Mr. and Mrs. John Luchsinger had eleven children: John, Henry E., Samuel C., Thomas W., Frank B., George M., Elsbeth, Barbara, and Edna Luchsinger, and two who died in infancy.

He died at Monroe, Wisconsin, April 23, 1922.

A. R.

Sources of Information:

Commemorative Biographical Records of Green, Lake, Lafayette, Dane Counties, Wisconsin (1902).
State Historical Society of Wisconsin, vol. xiii.
National Cyclopædia of American Biography, vol. vi.

JACOB MANZ

Pioneer Chicago Engraver

Born October 1, 1837, at Marthalen, Canton of Zürich, Switzerland.
Died April 25, 1916, in Chicago, Illinois.

AS a pioneer of the engraving industry of Chicago, the subject of this sketch stands in the front rank. He was one of the pioneer wood-engravers of the city, and the founder, and for many years president of the Manz Engraving Company, one of the largest concerns of its kind in the country.

Born in the Village of Marthalen, Canton of Zürich, in 1837, he received an excellent elementary education. His father was a well-known building contractor, specializing in the erection of public buildings. After his schooling, young Manz was apprenticed in the xylographic establishment of Lipe & Spalinger in Schaffhausen, to learn the art of wood-engraving. He had a natural inclination toward a vocation of this kind. After three years he had become an artist in this line, and for a short time worked as a journeyman in Germany and France.

In 1855, he embarked for the United States in a sailing vessel from Le Hâvre, France. It took 42 days to cross the bounding main, but young Manz now was in the land of promise and opportunity, and he was determined to make the best of it.

Manz, for some time after his arrival, lived in the Atlantic States; but whether it was mere intuition, or whether he had heard of the advice of Horace Greeley: ''Go west, young man!'' —he soon found himself in Chicago, and shortly after his arrival found employment in his line of work.

In 1865, Manz established a business of his own. It was but natural that his energy and business ability, together with his skill as a first-class engraver, should qualify him for complete success in that fast-growing city, the motto of which is: ''I will!''

His work, carefully and artistically executed, soon met with general approval; his patrons were satisfied. Year after year, his business expanded, necessitating removal to larger quarters.

However, in the great fire of 1871, which destroyed the greater part of the City of Chicago, Manz lost everything, except a few tools that, fortunately, were saved. It was a stunning blow to him, as well as to thousands of others. But undismayed, he began rebuilding before the smoke of the smoldering ruins had subsided.

The following years and decades were for him a period of strenuous business activity and, also, of growing success. In the course of years, the small xylographic establishment expanded and developed into side-lines.

Jacob Manz always kept abreast of the times, and knew how to adapt himself to the use of new inventions and devices. In natural sequence, he added a department of wood-carving, photo-engraving, lithography, zinc-etching, colored phototype and printing, and commercial photography. In 1880, the firm became connected with one of Chicago's leading printing establishments.

In 1907, the company was incorporated under the name of Manz Engraving Company. It is housed in its own building, employing hundreds of skilled mechanics, artisans, and artists in the graphic arts. The various arrangements of the building are such that all branches of the establishment, specialized as they are, co-operate and are co-ordinated, from the sketchers to the printers and the final executions of the various processes, thus avoiding waste of time and assuring prompt service.

The artistic accomplishments of the firm are nationally recognized. It ranks with the largest graphic arts establishments in the country. Its specialties are first-class colored pictures, almanacs, magazines, and advertising literature. Mr. Manz continued as president of the great enterprise until his death. Two of his sons, Paul H. and Adolph, occupy responsible positions in the establishment.

Mr. Manz took a keen interest in the social life of his Swiss compatriots, and was a respected member of several of Chicago's Swiss societies.

B. B.

Source of Information:

Personal acquaintance of the author.

JOHN B. MEYENBERG

JOHN B. MEYENBERG

Pioneer Manufacturer of Evaporated Milk

Born November 13, 1847, at Zug, Switzerland
Died October 29, 1914, at San Jose, California.

THE subject of this biographical review was the native son of a country famed for its dairying wealth, and its condensed milk products. As a worker in the Swiss condensing plants, especially at Cham, Meyenberg conceived the idea of a process by which an unsweetened preserved milk could be produced. He set about experimenting in evaporation and sterilization of milk, and, after three years of earnest endeavor, from 1880 to 1883, perfected this process. A deep thinker, a thorough chemist, possessed of an inventive mind, he made possible the preservation of evaporated milk without the aid of sugar, through the invention of the revolutionary retort machine.

Not so quickly as it is here told, was this great task accomplished. The life road of John B. Meyenberg was marked by mounds of sunshine and long vistas of shade. When his countrymen, failing to understand the merits of his achievement, refused his process recognition and assistance, he realized that again the old adage held true—''no man is a prophet in his own land.'' With sad regret, but firm convictions, Meyenberg and his family bade farewell to their country and sailed for America. In that same year, 1884, he was granted patents on his concentration process by the United States, and in the next two years succeeded in organizing a company to work under these patents.[1]

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[1] Extracts from a letter to A. Bartholdi dated August 12, 1931, from James A. Tobey, Dr. P. H., of The Borden Company, New York:

> The first successful process for the concentration of milk was invented by Gail Borden (in Galveston, Texas), who received patents for this process both in the United States and England in 1856. The United States patent was issued three years after the first application for it.
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> Gail Borden was the pioneer in this matter, although Mr. Meyenberg was the first to perfect a successful process for the concentration of milk without the addition of sugar. According to information in various

Evaporated milk on a successful scale was packed by Meyenberg on June 15, 1885, at Highland, Illinois. Thereafter, other evaporated-milk plants were established under his direction at Monroe, Wisconsin, where ''Monroe'' brand was packed, and at Elgin, Illinois, where ''Columbia'' brand was put on the market. ''Columbia'' brand received first prize at the World's Columbian Exposition in Chicago in 1893. Then, to the ultimate West. At Buena Park, California, ''Lilly'' brand was packed with such excellent results, that Meyenberg went north to Washington, where he introduced ''Carnation'' brand to the markets of the world. In 1904, Meyenberg decided he would originate but one more brand of evaporated milk and name it for his beloved Swiss mountains. In San Benito County, and the fertile Salinas Valley, he established plants, packing ''Alpine'' milk for an unlimited trade, and, thereafter, retired from active business.

And what manner of man in private life was this genius? He had married Josephine Bossard at Zug, Switzerland, in 1878, and they had three sons born to them: John Phillip, at Cham, Switzerland, April 4th, 1879, now president of the Meyenberg Evaporated Milk Co.; Walter, at Highland, Illinois, June 15, 1885, now director of the Meyenberg interests in Stanislaus County, and Werner, at Buena Park, California, February 22, 1897, now a physician in San Francisco. ''Pop'' Meyenberg, as he was familiarly called by old and young, was a keen and kindly gentleman, whose ready wit and old-fashioned hospitality marked him individual and lovable. After his retirement in 1911, he made his home in San Jose, California, where Mrs. Meyenberg passed away March 26, 1914, and six months later, October 29, he followed her to the grave. From the humblest to the highest of his associates, socially and in his working-world, his passing was sincerely mourned.

The elder sons have chosen to follow their father's work. John Phillip received his education in this line directly under his tutelage, first at Buena Park, later at the Carnation plants in the State of Washington, where he personally organized the Kent unit, and with the International Milk Company of Chehalis, where ''Primrose'' brand was packed. In conjunction

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authoritative books, he received this patent in 1884. At that time sweetened condensed milk was widely used throughout this country, having been made generally popular during the Civil War, when the United States Government commandeered the output of Mr. Borden's factory.

with his father, he built the Hollister plant and co-operated with him in the direction of the Gonzales and Coburn plants. John Phillip Meyenberg has direct supervision of the Meyenberg Evaporated Milk Company and when the company's distinctly modern plant at Salinas, California was completed in 1922 in an effort to place a tardy wreath of fame to his father's memory, he conceived the idea of calling the output of this establishment, ''Meyenberg Milk,'' generally called the ''M.M.'' brand. A still more modern plant, packing Meyenberg milk recently has been erected at Ripon, in Stanislaus county, operating under the management of Walter Meyenberg.

Quoting from the *San Francisco Call and Post,* in its issue of May 29, 1923, on ''Famous Americans,'' we have the following:

> Modern Life largely depends upon our ability to utilize food produced thousands of miles from the most congested cities, and Meyenberg made that possible with milk, on which account, whether you favor one brand or another, you are still profiting from the successful experiments of John B. Meyenberg, without whose name the history of the Salinas Valley cannot be written. And so it must appear that the bard's earnest prayer had drawn from the world of the old to Alta, California, a master mind to match the wonder of our natural grandeurs, as the empire of an essential industry bears ample testimony to the purpose of John B. Meyenberg.

J. P. M.

HENRY ROSENBERG

Texas Pioneer, Merchant, Banker, Philanthropist

Born June 22, 1824, at Bilten, Canton of Glarus, Switzerland.
Died May 12, 1893, at Galveston, Texas.

THE career of Henry Rosenberg is typical of that of many ambitious and industrious immigrants who came from Europe to the United States for better or for worse, and who made the best of the opportunities which a new and almost unsettled country offered them. His whole capital was vested in his willingness to work and strive, when he came to Galveston, Texas, in February, 1843. A half century afterwards, when he died, he was one of the most substantial and respected citizens of that important southern seaport. He had accumulated a large fortune, but at his death he bequeathed almost all of it for public purposes and benefactions worthy of a man of the highest ideals.

Henry Rosenberg was born in the small village of Bilten, Canton of Glarus, Switzerland, June 22, 1824. His father, Rudolph Rosenberg, was born there in 1798, and died in 1862. The Rosenbergs had been citizens of Bilten for many generations. He attended the village school and high school, and then was apprenticed to a calico or fabric printer, which industry, besides dairy farming, offered the main livelihood to the people of the villages and towns of the Canton of Glarus.

In the early forties of the last century, a business depression had set in; the factories had shut down or curtailed production. Henry found temporary employment in the dry-goods store of a Mr. Hoesly in Glarus, the capital of the canton. A son of his employer had emigrated to Galveston a few years before and opened up a similar store there and had written to his father about the favorable conditions in the newly settled country. Naturally, Henry Rosenberg was interested in these optimistic descriptions of the opportunities in the new Republic of Texas. His employer encouraged him to try his luck across the sea.

It did not take Henry long to decide. In Glarus, he couldn't see anything very promising; there were too many people in these mountain valleys, and very meagre opportunities to become independent and successful. His chosen vocation presently was in a precarious condition: ''There was little to eat and many to keep,'' verily, gospel truth, as he thought. The Government of the canton sought to relieve the desperate situation by urging and assisting all who cared to emigrate to foreign countries. During those years, hundreds of the poor unemployed people of Glarus left their homes for America. The pioneers who founded New Glarus, Wisconsin, were among them.

On the other hand, Texas then was an independent republic, which a few years before, at the battle of Jacinto, had freed itself from Mexican rule under the daring and courageous American pioneer and soldier, General Sam Houston. Not until 1845 did Texas join the United States.

Rosenberg was a manly-looking young immigrant of nineteen years when he arrived in Galveston, eager to work and even more eager to learn. He found employment in the dry-goods store of Mr. Hessly (who had somewhat Americanized his name), the son of his former employer in Glarus. His pay was $8 a month. For three years it was practically all work and no play; the evenings were spent in studying and in learning the English language; thus he saved his pennies and dollars. Then the first opportunity presented itself. His employer offered to sell him his business, and Rosenberg welcomed the opportunity. He sent for his two young nephews, Joseph Blum and Daniel Stuessy, and employed them in his store, the business of which was expanding almost faster than the town grew. Later, he loaned them the money to independently establish themselves.

Two years later, Rosenberg had saved enough to enable him to buy two lots on one of the main business streets for $5,000, upon which he later erected a business block, in which he carried on his prosperous dry-goods business. He now thought it was time to look around for a wife. He did not have to look very far; for right next door to him a young lady, Letitia Cooper, a native of Virginia, had set up a millinery establishment. They both were doing well. In 1851, Henry asked the young lady to become his wife and she accepted him.

In the next ten years, his business grew steadily and, by 1860, when talk of the Civil war and secession finally led Texas to join the Confederacy, Henry Rosenberg was conducting the most extensive dry-goods store in Texas. It was in that same year that he occupied his new residence. The Rosenbergs were without children, and that, no doubt, later became the motivating factor of his philanthropic benefactions.

In 1866, Rosenberg was appointed Vice Consul of Switzerland for the State of Texas; and three years later, when a vacancy occurred, he was promoted to the Consular post, and served his native country in that capacity until his death in 1893.

The rise of Henry Rosenberg and his prominence as a citizen of Galveston may well be illustrated by a recitation of the positions he held as a citizen and business man, namely: chairman of committee on licenses and assessments and member of finance and revenue and committee on markets; president, Galveston Hotel Company; president, Galveston City Railroad Company; commissioner, Gulf, Colorado & Santa Fé Railway, and a director until sold to Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé Railway System in 1886; president, Gulf, Colorado & Santa Fé Railway Company until 1877 without salary; president, Galveston Bank and Trust Company from 1874 to 1882; vestryman of the Trinity Episcopal Church; director, Galveston Wharf Company; director, Union Marine Insurance Company; director, Agricultural, Horticultural and Industrial Association; one of eleven Galveston citizens forming syndicate which carried to success the construction of the Gulf, Colorado & Santa Fé Railroad; sole owner from 1882 until his death of the Galveston Bank and Trust Company; director, Galveston Orphans' Home from 1883 until death; alderman and chairman of finance; and president, Galveston Orphans' Home until death.

In 1888, he made his first large donation to the City of Galveston, when he gave that municipality the sum of $40,000 for the erection of a public school building. The building was finished under his personal supervision the year following, finally costing him $75,000.

In June, 1888, his wife died. Two years later, in company of his second wife, Mattie R. MacGill Rosenberg, he visited Switzerland and his native village. The church at Bilten, where he had been christened, was repaired and renovated by him at a cost of $5,000.

On May 12, 1893, Henry Rosenberg died at his home in Galveston in his 69th year. His body lay in state at Rosenberg School, and the funeral services were attended by all classes of citizens.

After his demise, it was found that he left the great bulk of his property to the City of Galveston, and an appropriate amount to his native village. He was careful that his will should be properly written, so that it could not be misconstrued or contested. He named as the executors of his will three life-long friends, namely, Major A. J. Walker, Wm. J. Fredrich, and his attorney, Colonel M. F. Mott. For their services he set aside the sum of $35,000. Fredrich died in 1898; thus the burden of carrying out the stipulations of the will fell to Walker and Mott.

The estate was appraised at $1,107,737. Through the unselfish and wise handling of the residue funds devised for public library purposes, after the other bequests had been paid and carried out, Mr. Walker was able to enhance the amount of the funds by several hundred thousand dollars, so that after spending $275,000 for the Rosenberg Library Building, the endowment fund for the perpetual upkeep of the institution amounted to $635,000.

It was a gala holiday for the City of Galveston, when on June 22, 1904, the Rosenberg Library was formally dedicated and opened to the public. The whole city suspended work and business. And there were other holidays, when the Soldiers' Monument, in 1913, and the drinking fountains, and all other institutions which arose from his benefactions were dedicated.

No, the citizens of Galveston could not withstand the desire to publicly honor this erstwhile poor emigrant from Switzerland; they erected a statue to him and placed it at the entrance of the public library; they renamed one of the finest residential streets ''Rosenberg Avenue''; they fixed May 1st of each year as ''Founder's Day'' in honor of their ''Benefactor,'' as they call him; and in 1918, the city published a splendid Memorial Book, richly illustrated, containing a biography and the main events of his life and a record of his benefactions in detail; especially so of the crowning gem: the Rosenberg Free Public Library and Lecture Hall of Galveston. This has grown from 7,000 volumes to nearly 100,000. The revenue from the endowment fund, amounting to $30,000 a year, more than takes care of its upkeep, which is about $25,000; thus the citizens have all the benefits of an institution that is invaluable to them without paying a cent of tax for same.

A. R.

Sources of Information:

Henry Rosenberg Memorial, published by the Rosenberg Library, in commemoration of Galveston's great benefactor.

Data furnished to the writer by Frank C. Patten, Librarian of Rosenberg Library, Galveston, Texas.

ROBERT J. F. SCHWARZENBACH

Captain of Industry and Philanthropist

Born November 10, 1875, at Zürich, Switzerland.
Died August 3, 1929, at Plainview, New York.

HANS FRIEDRICH ROBERT SCHWARZENBACH (known as Robert J. F. Schwarzenbach) was the second-born of five children of Heinrich Robert and Elizabeth W. (Zeuner) Schwarzenbach. His father was a well-established silk merchant in Zürich. Robert spent his early youth in his native city, attending the public schools for six years, and the high school for four years.

In 1894, in order to obtain technical training in the silk industry, he took a two-years' course in the silk-weaving school at Zürich. When a young man he served in the Swiss militia and attained the rank of second lieutenant of cavalry. He had an inclination towards architecture, emanating from a natural liking and talent for tackling problems new to him. His constructive talent and aptness for organization, however, was not developed along that line, and architecture remained but a personal hobby with him. Nevertheless, it proved to be an asset to him in the industrial career to which he was more or less predestined as the eldest son of the family.

Having gained a thorough training in the silk industry, he came to New York in 1897, in order to familiarize himself with American business and trade, as well as to learn the language of the country. Three years later he returned to Europe to serve an apprenticeship in the French and Swiss mills of the Schwarzenbach concern.

The possibilities of expansion being more limited in Europe than in the United States, he returned to New York in 1902, where he started on his American career as junior partner in the Schwarzenbach, Huber & Company.

The untimely death of his father, who died of heart disease, July 1, 1904, brought him into close collaboration with the senior partner of the firm, Mr. Jacques Huber. He was equal to the occasion. Being neither afraid of hard work nor the ever-increas-

ROBERT J. F. SCHWARZENBACH

ing responsibilities thrust upon him, at the age of thirty-five, he became head and manager of the firm upon the retirement of Mr. Huber. The concern, in the meantime, had obtained an enviable reputation for itself, and was considered one of the largest silk mills in the world. It continued to prosper under the direction and management of Mr. Schwarzenbach.

Being full of energy, and endowed with a strong will-power, and an abundance of initiative, he was much interested in new problems that constantly confronted him. At the same time, he entertained a strong dislike for anything that was done in an amateurish or slipshod fashion. Thus he insisted upon thoroughness, instead of superficiality; order instead of disorder; efficiency instead of incompetency; high standards instead of low standards. Loyal to his own convictions, he never hesitated to stand up and fight for his opinions in the open-minded and frank way characteristic of him.

Such a man was not to be denied. He forged ahead to leadership in whatever aroused and excited his interest and liking. Thus, in 1910, he was elected to the Board of Managers of the Silk Association of America. From that time forward, he was intimately associated with this important organization, becoming one of its officers in 1921, and first vice-president in 1923.

Robert Schwarzenbach was keenly interested in educational matters. He made an endowment to Antioch College, in Yellow Springs, Ohio, and, in 1925, was elected a trustee of that institution.

In New York City, Schwarzenbach interested himself in the betterment and welfare of his Swiss compatriots, and paid special attention to the development of the Swiss Benevolent Society, acting as its president during the period of 1911-17. Thereafter, he was chosen chairman of the Board of Trustees of this, the largest Swiss benevolent organization of the metropolis, and continued in an advisory capacity as an active member, often giving it financial support, in addition to the moral influence his activity and membership naturally exerted. He was largely responsible for the transfer of the Swiss Home for the Aged from its inadequate and hemmed-in quarters in New York City, to the countryside at Mount Kisco, New York, and the establishment in the vacated quarters in New York City of a home for self-supporting Swiss women, which latter institution remained under the management of the Swiss Benevolent Society.

The Swiss Government manifested its appreciation of Robert

Schwarzenbach's ability and standing by appointing him Honorary Consul General for Switzerland in New York, after the death of Louis H. Junod. He assumed his duties in April, 1927, and at the same time the office was elevated to a Consulate General. After having formed the first personal contact with the Government and the trade associations of Switzerland, and acquainted himself with their desires, one of his first moves as Honorary Consul General was the organization of a trade council by soliciting a number of prominent men of New York as members. This body was to act in an advisory capacity to the commercial division of the Consulate General, and, in a sense, was a substitute for a Swiss-American chamber of commerce.

With a view to accomplishing more and getting better results, he favored the merging of the many Swiss societies functioning in New York City, into a closer and more efficient body, and had laid plans toward that end. However, it was too tedious a task to be accomplished in a short time and, unfortunately, his untimely death left the project in abeyance.

In the summer of 1929, an infection undermined his health and, after a comparatively short illness, he died at his Long Island farm in Plainview, New York, the gradual development of which had given his architectural bent an opportunity to create "an object of beauty and a joy forever." Here, far from his business cares, he had spent many pleasant hours in recreation. Every nook and corner of the 500-acre tract of land bore the personal stamp of his aesthetic sense of beauty in architecture and landscaping.

His widow, Margaret Hedwig, née Froelicher, and three children survive him, namely: Anne Elizabeth, Robert Maximilian, and Jean Christopher.

V. N.

Source of Information:

Personal acquaintance of the writer with the subject, together with data furnished by the family of the latter.

PETER STAUB

Manufacturer, and Mayor of Knoxville, Tennessee

Born February 22, 1827, at Bilten, Canton of Glarus, Switzerland.
Died May 19, 1904, at Knoxville, Tennessee.

THE career of Peter Staub is a splendid example of a Swiss immigrant who by dint of energy, industry and progressive ideas forged to the front, became a successful manufacturer and attained high civic honors by being thrice elected mayor of a large Southern city.

Peter Staub was born in the same village that claims the distinction of being the birthplace of Henry Rosenberg, the Texas merchant, banker, and philanthropist, namely, Bilten, in the Canton of Glarus, Switzerland. He was the son of Jacob Staub and Marie Staub, née Steger, and lost his parents at an early age; for this reason when but a mere boy, he had to buckle to and earn his own living.

When a young man of twenty-two, Staub on October 2, 1849, married Miss Rosina Blum, and five years later, the young couple decided to seek more favorable opportunities in the New World, locating in Rahway, New Jersey, in 1854. The climate of New Jersey however, did not agree with him; his health began to fail, and a few years before the outbreak of the Civil war, they moved to Knoxville, Tennessee.

In Knoxville, Staub started his industrial career by entering the iron foundry business and soon branched into other industrial lines. In time, he became very successful, and soon was ranked as one of the largest and most conspicuous manufacturers in the city, if not the state. He was very active in promoting new industrial enterprises. In 1871, he built and operated the first opera house in Knoxville.

The citizens of Knoxville recognized his interest and his endeavors for the industrial and civic progress of their city by electing him mayor in 1875, 1876, and again in 1881. As mayor, he stood for progressive measures, and was especially active in promoting public improvements, such as laying out new streets, opening up new sections, etc., so that Knoxville, under his administration, was transformed from an overgrown village to a fine and up-to-date city.

Furthermore, Staub was honored by Governor Porter of Tennessee, and by President Rutherford B. Hayes to represent the State of Tennessee and the United States, respectively, as Commissioner at the International Exposition in Paris in 1878. As such, he served with great credit and distinction.

In Knoxville, he was largely instrumental in establishing the first free (public) schools, and one of those buildings was named in his honor, ''Staub School.'' For many years, he acted as Swiss Consular Agent, having jurisdiction in the State of Tennessee. From 1885 to 1889 he served as United States Consul at St. Gall, Switzerland.

After the Civil war, Staub co-operated with the Swiss Consul General, John Hitz, of Washington, in founding the Swiss colony of ''Grutli'' on the Cumberland Plateau in Grundy county, Tennessee. He also was the legal adviser of the colonists, and it was due to his efforts that the colony rapidly developed and soon was in a comparatively flourishing condition.

Peter Staub, besides being a self-made man, was one of the meritorious and public-spirited citizens of his adopted country, and especially was his interest centered on Knoxville, to the growth and development of which he so largely contributed. He was a man to whom every Swiss-American can point with pride.

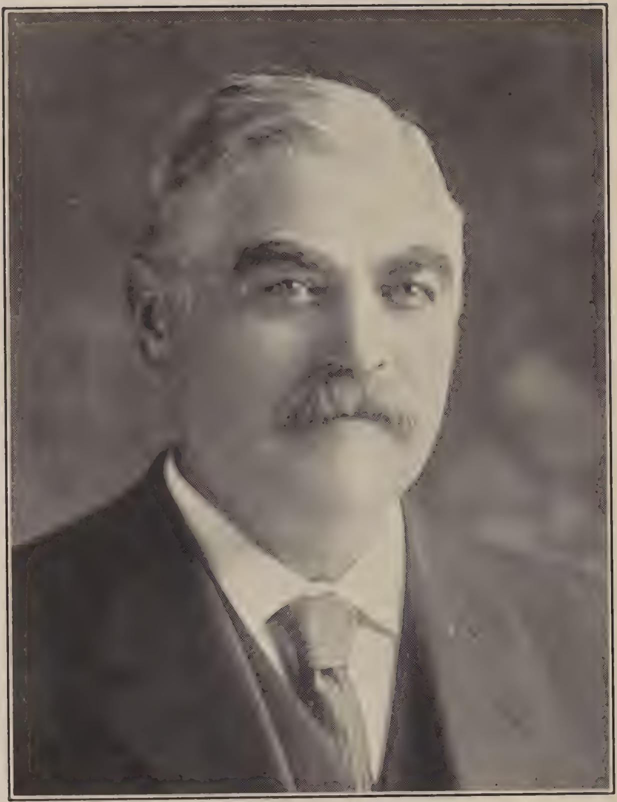
Nine children were born to him and his wife, four of whom survived them. Two sons, Fritz and John, and a daughter, Pauline, still live in Knoxville; another daughter, Mary, is married to Fritz Meyer, a prominent Swiss business man of New York.

Peter Staub died in Knoxville, Tennessee, May 19, 1904.

A. Ba.

Sources of Information:

Schweizerkolonien in den Ver. Staaten, by Steinach (1889).
Data furnished to the writer by Fritz Staub of Knoxville, Tennessee, son of the subject.



JACOB WEIDMANN

JACOB WEIDMANN

Silk Dyer and Captain of Industry

Born March 22, 1845, at Thalwil, Switzerland.
Died July 4, 1909, in Paterson, New Jersey.

DESCENDANT of an old and reputable Swiss family, which for generations had been identified with the silk industry as dyers, Jacob Weidmann received a careful education at the Institute Hueni, a private school at Horgen, on the shores of Lake Zürich. He learned the trade of silk dyer in his father's establishment, and remained with him until the age of seventeen, when he left home, and for five years was employed in various silk-dyeing establishments in Germany and France. After familiarizing himself with the most improved methods and processes used in the business, he came to the United States in 1867, and for five years was employed with Cheney Brothers, at South Manchester, Connecticut. He also married the daughter of one of his employers. After his marriage, he removed to Paterson, New Jersey, and took charge of the silk-dyeing plant of Thomas N. Dale. In 1874, when this concern failed, Weidmann established his own silk-dyeing plant. Two years later, Claude Grepps joined him in partnership under the firm name of Weidmann & Grepps. The latter, however, withdrew after two years and Weidmann continued the business on his own account. He foresaw success for the silk-dyeing industry in the United States, provided that the best of skilled workmen could be induced to come to America from the more renowned centers of the industry in Europe. This he accomplished. Through his efforts, a number of experts and specialists came to Paterson, all of whom, in later years were destined to become master dyers and heads of large concerns.

Toward the close of 1885, Weidmann acquired the Riverside Chemical Works in Paterson, and began to manufacture chemicals which he had heretofore purchased from others. His foresight also induced him to establish a logwood-cutting plant at Fort Montgomery, New York. (Logwood forms a valuable raw material in the manufacture of dyes.)

In 1887, the entire plant of the Weidmann Silk Dyeing Company was removed to Riverside. Weidmann was not content with being the nominal head and chief executive, but personally supervised every department of his great enterprise, which had grown to be the largest silk-dyeing establishment in America.

Ever on the alert to try out new ideas, and introduce more practical and economizing methods, he continually experimented along these lines, and finally adopted the ''artificial daylight'' for color-matching. He was equally scrutinous and careful in the selection of his immediate assistants, evincing a keen insight into their inherent ability and qualification.

Realizing the necessity of shifting part of the management to younger shoulders, he induced his kinsman, Dr. August J. Hunziker, of Aarau, Switzerland, to come to America in 1894. Hunziker subsequently attained one of the foremost positions in the American silk industry.

On January 1, 1909, Weidmann disposed of the controlling interest in his company to Gillet et fils, of Lyons, France, which, in 1922, merged its concern with the United Piece Dye Works of Lodi, New Jersey. Although urged to continue in the active management of the concern, he decided to retire to private life. For a man of Weidmann's long and active business life this proved unfortunate. He soon broke down under the strain of inaction, and died on July 4th, 1909.

As a matter of history, it might be interesting to relate that few plans for the location of a city have so successfully matured as those formulated in 1791 by the Society for the Establishment of Useful Manufactures, a New Jersey organization, which was determined to utilize the falls of the Passaic river as the source of power for proposed industrial enterprises.

While New England may claim priority in the matter of silk dyeing, much experimental and constructive work was accomplished in Paterson. Jacob Weidmann is to be counted as one of the pioneers in this industry. He was one of the most forceful business men in Paterson's industrial history, and in every respect an outstanding and representative man of his generation.

A. Ba.

Sources of Information:

The History of the Silk Dyeing Industry in the U. S. (1927), by A. H. Heusser.
A History of Industrial Paterson (1882), by L. R. Trumbull.
Silk Industry in America, by Brockett.

ALBERT CHARLES WITTNAUER

Pioneer of American Watch Industry

Born 1856, in Neuchâtel, Switzerland.
Died 1908, in Menton, France.

ALBERT CHARLES WITTNAUER received his grammar school and college education in the town of his birth. Neuchâtel is traditionally famous for its excellent public schools, as well as for its many private educational institutions, all of which rank among the best in the world. After finishing his college course, he received a thorough practical training in the mechanics of the watch industry, the chief industry of Neuchâtel. In 1872, at the age of 16, the young man left his home town for America and settled in New York City, where he was employed in the New York branch of the Longines Watch Company. Here he soon developed into an efficient watchmaker and was rapidly advanced. His energy and business acumen presently became apparent and had a stimulating influence upon the young concern, which formed the nucleus of the present firm.

Their first offices were located at 24 John Street, and later on in Bond Street, New York City. At that time, Maiden Lane became the center of the jewelry and allied trades in the metropolis of America. In spite of continued expansion and occasional removal of individual concerns, Maiden Lane has retained its position. To occupy a store or office on Maiden Lane was the ultimate ambition of every progressive jewelry merchant, and when Albert Charles Wittnauer started in business for himself, he naturally set up in the heart of Jewelers' Row—first at No. 30, and later at No. 9 Maiden Lane.

In their attempt to meet the ever-increasing requirements for additional floor space, the Wittnauer Company in 1915, removed to 30 West 36th Street and, finally, in 1928, to their present and pretentious location, at Fifth Avenue and 37th Street, New York. In addition to the Longines watches, Wittnauer introduced into the American market the ''Agassiz'' and the ''Touchon'' watches, both time-pieces of exceptional quality and excellence. Desiring to express individuality in distinctive workmanship, the Brighton Watch Case Company was founded by

Wittnauer, at 30 West 36th Street. It proved a successful venture from the start, and its continued success attested to the business prevision and sound judgment of its founder. There is no doubt that in a large measure the success and expansion of the American watch-case industry are due to the foresight of the early importers, among whom Albert Wittnauer was the acknowledged leader. He imported special models and adapted and modified them to suit American requirements and taste.

The American watch-case factories, representing investments almost as great as those of the watch-movement industry, are dependent upon the importation of Swiss movements for about 65% of their entire production. In 1927, the importation of watch movements from Switzerland amounted to about $9,000,000, which represents about 98% of the total imports of watch movements into the United States. The Swiss and the American watch industries thus are closely interwoven and interdependent. This peculiar condition is largely due to Albert Wittnauer, whose efforts in this direction have rendered a great service to America. He was a connoisseur of fine watches, as well as an expert and authority in evaluating antique timepieces. He was a thorough and competent craftsman and a business man of the highest integrity. He infused his own personal ideals into his business and conducted all transactions in a fair and square manner, pursuant to the maxim, ''honesty is the best policy''; and to be sure, his character was true to his time-pieces, for accuracy was at the bottom of his makeup, the principle of his remarkable success. He died in Menton, France, in 1908, while on a visit in Europe.

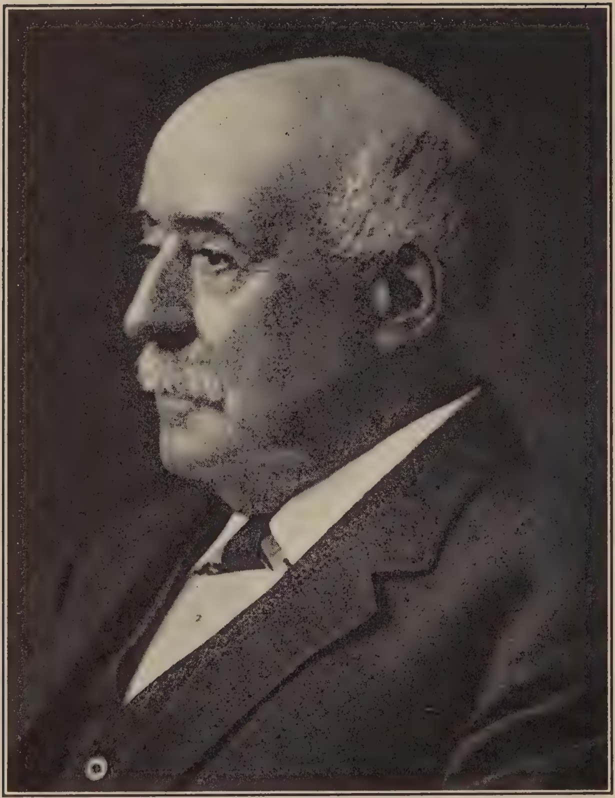
His brother, Emile J., assumed the presidency and management of the company until 1916, when a sister, Martha S. Wittnauer, became the active head of the concern, which continues to maintain the excellent reputation of the international firm.

The Wittnauer Company is entrusted with furnishing all the chronometers used in the American observatories, for the United States torpedo boat service, and various other public institutions. Through the courtesy of the Wittnauer Company, the Longines correct time is broadcast daily by the most powerful radio stations in the United States. A. Ba.

Sources of Information:

Letter to the writer under date of Sept. 14, 1928, together with a biographical sketch from Miss Martha S. Wittnauer.

Memorial pamphlet published in 1928.



ALEXANDER AGASSIZ

ALEXANDER AGASSIZ

Zoologist, Oceanographer, Mine Operator, and Philanthropist

Born December 17, 1835, at Neuchâtel, Switzerland.
Died March 27, 1910, aboard ship returning to America.

ALEXANDER AGASSIZ was the only son of Jean Louis Rodolphe Agassiz by his first wife, Cécile Braun Agassiz. He received his early education at Neuchâtel, and, in 1849, when a lad of fourteen, joined his father at Cambridge, Massachusetts, a year after the death of his mother. Soon after his arrival, Alexander prepared to enter Harvard University, graduating in 1855. He then studied engineering at the Lawrence Scientific School, and in 1857 received his bachelor of science degree. Still not satisfied with his educational accomplishments, he took additional courses in civil engineering and chemistry at that school. In 1859, he went to California as assistant in the United States Coast Survey, which at that time was at work on the California coast line. In his spare time, he collected geological specimens for the natural science museum of Harvard University, and, when time permitted, he visited and investigated the principal mines in the West.

Returning to Cambridge in 1860, he became assistant in zoology at the Harvard Museum, taking full charge during 1865, at the time of his father's absence in Brazil. In the same year, he became interested in coal mining in Pennsylvania, and in the following year, gave his attention to the copper mines of Lake Superior, remaining there until 1869, as superintendent of the mining properties of the Calumet & Hecla Company. There he developed the company's ore deposits until they became one of the most productive and successful copper mines in the world. He was tireless in his energy, and during those years worked fourteen hours a day. His consideration for the welfare of the thousands of workers under his immediate supervision, is evinced by his initiative in creating pension and accident funds, safety devices, and sanitary measures in the mining communities, in addition to the installation of more modern mining machinery.

In 1860, Agassiz married Anna Russell, one of the pupils of his stepmother's School for Girls in Cambridge. At that time, he had neither money nor good health. In the years following, while his strenuous work in the copper mines impaired his health, he did, however, accumulate considerable wealth. He now began to contribute liberally to the Harvard Museum, which contributions ultimately amounted to more than one million dollars.

Seeking to regain his health, he made an extensive tour of Europe during 1869 and 1870, and as a relaxation examined the natural science museums of England, France, Germany, Italy, and the Scandinavian countries. On his return, he resumed his duties at the museum at Cambridge, of which he was made curator in 1874, at the time of the death of his father. He held this position until 1886, when he resigned because of ill health. During the summer of 1873, he acted as director of the Anderson School of Natural History, and in 1875, made a journey to Chile and Peru to examine the copper mines of those countries.

Beginning in 1878, he undertook a series of coastwise and oceanic exploration expeditions in various parts of the world, which later established his fame as an oceanographer. The first of these voyages was made on the steamship *Blake* coursing along the coasts of the West Indies. In 1880, he explored the course of the Gulf Stream. In 1885, he made a private visit to the Coral Islands. He was aboard the steamship *Albatross* in 1891, when it explored the waters of the Pacific Ocean from Panama to the Galapagos Islands, and north to the Gulf of California. Again, in 1892, the Bahama Islands were explored, and in 1894, he undertook a private tour of exploration to the Bermudas.

In 1899-1900, Agassiz again was aboard the *Albatross* in its great explorations of the Pacific Ocean between San Francisco and the Marquesas Islands. In this region, he made thousands of soundings and dredgings. In 1904, aboard the same vessel, he explored that region of the Pacific Ocean lying between Peru and the Eads Islands.

He was the presiding officer of the International Congress of Zoölogists in Boston in 1907. He made a pleasure trip to the Great Lakes of Africa in 1908. His last trip to Europe was made in 1910, and it was upon his return to America aboard the *Adriatic* that he died peacefully in his sleep.

Alexander Agassiz was an amiable character, a man deeply absorbed in any work or undertaking in which he was engaged.

His private wealth, his great generosity, his obvious superiority to his associates as an organizer and scientist, made him somewhat of an autocrat in the museum, as well as at sea. During his connection with Harvard Museum, he did very little classroom teaching, but his generosity toward and interest in young students and scientists gave him an influence which extended far beyond the classroom.

Agassiz's publications, such as pamphlets, reports, contributions to scientific periodicals, and the proceedings of scientific societies, are most numerous. Most of these are to be found in the bulletins and memoirs of the Harvard Museum at Cambridge, of which his father was the founder, and Alexander Agassiz the munificent benefactor. In collaboration with his stepmother, Mrs. Elizabeth Cabot Agassiz, he also was the author of *Seaside Studies in Natural History* (1865); *Marine Animals of Massachusetts Bay* (1871), and of the fifth volume of *Contributions to the Natural History of the United States,* which was left unfinished by his father, at the time of the latter's death.

A. R.

Sources of Information:

Appleton's Cyclopædia of American Biography.
Dictionary of American Biography, vol. i (1928).
Encyclopædia Britannica.

JEAN LOUIS RODOLPHE AGASSIZ

Naturalist, Geologist, and Zoologist

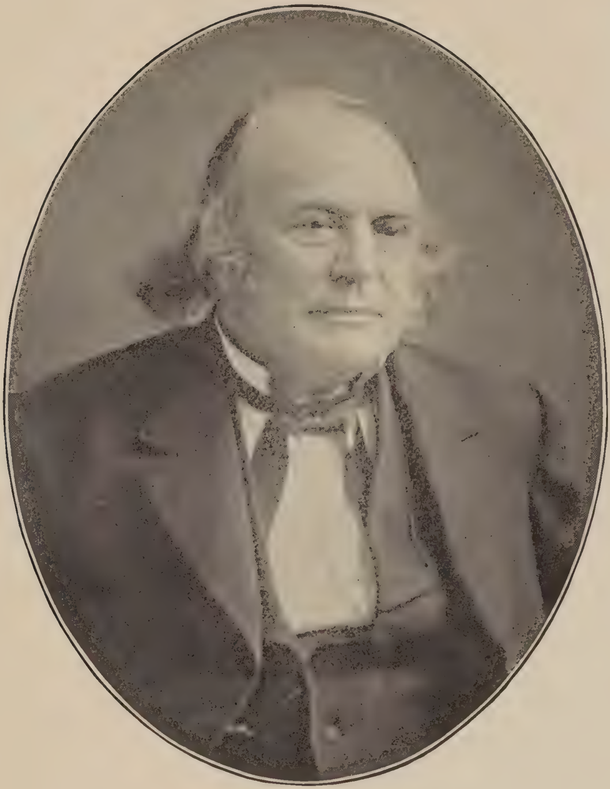
Born May 28, 1807, at Môtier, Canton of Fribourg, Switzerland.
Died December 14, 1873, at Cambridge, Massachusetts.

AGASSIZ and Gallatin, the former in the field of natural science, the latter as a statesman and scholar, justly may be claimed as the two outstanding men of Swiss birth who so magnificently have contributed to American prestige in their respective spheres. No other citizens of foreign birth have excelled their records. Both have been duly honored by the American people. Agassiz fully justified the expectations of Harvard University when it created a special chair of zoology in order to induce the great natural scientist to accept a call to that celebrated institution of learning. Today, Agassiz occupies a niche in the Hall of Fame of great Americans.

He was born May 28, 1807, at Môtier, Canton of Fribourg, Switzerland, on the border line between the French and German speaking parts of his native land, where he was destined, through the medium of his Swiss birth and education, to imbibe the culture, knowledge, and science of both France and Germany. His father, Louis Rodolphe Agassiz, was a Protestant clergyman, as had been his ancestors for six generations. His mother was Rose Mayor, daughter of a physician of Cudrefin, on the shore of Lake Neuchâtel. From early childhood, Agassiz showed a fondness for natural history, and as a mere boy possessed a varied collection of animal pets. He received his early education from his cultured mother, who, during her lifetime, took an active interest in all his scientific pursuits.

At the age of ten years, he was sent to a college for boys at Bienne, where he remained four years. At the unusually early age of fifteen, he entered the college at Lausanne, and subsequently the medical school at Zürich, where for the first time he came in contact with men who were engaged in original research.

In 1826, he left Zürich and went to Heidelberg, the famous university of Southern Germany. A year later, he matriculated at the University of Munich. His first scientific work was pub-



J. L. R. AGASSIZ

lished in 1829, and consisted of a description, written in Latin, of the Brazilian fishes brought to Germany by Martius and Spix from their celebrated scientific expedition to Brazil, which jointly had been financed by the governments of Bavaria and Austria.

This remarkable publication at once raised him to a high standing among ichthyologists. He continued his studies at the Natural Museum in Munich, after which he gave his attention to all of the available paleontological collections of Central Europe. In the spring of 1829, he received his bachelor of science degree at the University of Erlangen, and then returned to Munich to continue his medical studies. In April, 1830, he received his M.D. degree at the latter university.

About this time, he also devoted much of his attention to two important scientific studies, one of which, *Poissons Fossiles,* soon after its publication, gave him a most enviable place among European scientists. In 1831, he left for Paris, where his fame had preceded him. Georges Léopold Cuvier and Alexander von Humboldt received the enthusiastic young scientist with open arms, and provided him with every facility for his research work. Agassiz worked under Cuvier until the latter's death in 1832. He accepted Cuvier's scientific views, and opposed Darwin's theory of evolution.

In 1832, on recommendation of Humboldt, Agassiz was offered and accepted the chair of natural history at the College of Neuchâtel. Humboldt had generously assisted Agassiz financially, so that he was enabled to continue his researches in Paris. Through his occupancy of the chair of natural history at the then comparatively unknown college, the little town of Neuchâtel soon became a center of scientific activity. His reputation established, he received flattering offers from leading universities, yet he was content with the meager salary he received from the College of Neuchâtel. He now proceeded to publish his *Recherches sur les Poissons Fossiles* in five volumes, elaborately illustrated. A lithograph and printing establishment was especially built and equipped for this purpose by a company in which he was interested.

In 1833, Agassiz married Cécile Braun, sister of his lifelong friend, Alexander Braun, of Karlsruhe, Germany. His wife possessed artistic talent; some of the best drawings contained in *Fossil Fishes* and in *Fresh Water Fishes* were made by her. It was at this time that America became interested in his investigations. One of his most famous associates was Charpentier, under whom Agassiz afterward began his inquiries into glacial phenomena. He made frequent excursions into the Jura Mountains and the Bernese Alps (Aaregletscher), and, in 1840, published his *Etudes sur les Glaciers.*

Previous to this time, however, in August, 1834, he fulfilled a long-cherished wish to visit England, where he studied the Devonian geological formation, which resulted in the publication of his monograph on *The Fossil Fishes of the Devonian System.* While thus engaged in England, he contemplated a visit to America. He previously had corresponded with Charles Lyell and John Lowell regarding a series of lectures to be delivered by him at Lowell Institute in Boston. At the same time, he intended to prolong his visit and study the natural history and geology of America.

The trip to America, however, had to be deferred, as at that time he lacked sufficient means to undertake the journey. His obligations to the College of Neuchâtel demanded his return from England. In 1835, his son was born and named Alexander, in honor of his wife's brother, Alexander Braun. The following years he devoted to teaching at the college, and to the printing of his works. Many distinguished men and scientists visited him during this period. He introduced the plan of taking the students on excursions into the very recesses of nature, and thus, without the aid of textbooks, explaining the fundamentals of his scientific teachings at their source.

During 1835-45, Agassiz's income ofttimes was insufficient. His salary from the college did not amount to more than $400, while the financial returns from his books and lectures added but little to this amount. Besides, he had become involved in the printing establishment, the affairs of which were not very encouraging. All this weighed heavily on his wife, whose health had become impaired, and who, in addition to Alexander, also had borne two daughters. In 1845, his wife and children left for an extended visit with her brother's family in Karlsruhe. Soon thereafter, the printing establishment had to be shut down. It became imperative for Agassiz's relatives to extricate him from a serious financial embarrassment. The then King of Prussia, who inherited certain sovereignty rights over the Canton of Neuchâtel, and who had aided the college with a yearly subsidy, made a special gift to Agassiz in order to permit him to visit America. Before leaving, he visited his wife and children at

Karlsruhe. He never again saw his wife alive, as she fell a victim of tuberculosis in 1848.

Agassiz arrived at Boston in October, 1846. His first lecture at the Lowell Institute aroused great enthusiasm among the students, and at the same time received the approval of faculty. His success now was assured, and he was induced to accept the chair of zoology, a special department which had been added to the Institute. During his travels in the United States, he came in contact with the nation's leading naturalists and scientific men. In 1847, he established himself in a small house at East Boston, which he transformed into a veritable laboratory. In that year, his *Système Glaciaire*, setting forth the results of his investigations and explorations in the Alps, made its appearance in Europe in book form.

In the summer of 1847, he was invited by Dr. Bache to accompany a scientific expedition along the coast line from Boston to San Francisco, circling the South American continent on board the "Hassler," a United States vessel, named in honor of his compatriot, Ferdinand Rudolph Hassler. On this long voyage he recorded many valuable observations.

From the very outset of his American visit, he had been the recipient of such marked attention and cordial hospitality that he decided to make the United States his home. In 1848, he obtained his release from the Prussian Government, in whose behalf, for scientific purposes, he had primarily undertaken the journey to America, and definitely accepted the chair of zoology and geology at Harvard University, which had been specially created for him. That same year, he undertook an expedition to the shores of Lake Superior for the purpose of investigating the geology of that region.

A year after his wife's death, he was joined by his fourteen-year-old son, Alexander, and in the following year by his two daughters. In the spring of 1850, he was married to Elizabeth Cabot, daughter of Thomas Greaves Cary, of Boston, Massachusetts, a tie which bound him still more firmly to America.

In 1851, Agassiz accepted the professorship of comparative anatomy and zoology at the Medical College of Charleston, South Carolina, but finding the climate of the South unfavorable, he returned to Cambridge, Massachusetts, in 1854, and resumed his duties at the Lawrence Scientific School. In the meantime, he had been tendered a chair at the University of Zurich, Switzerland; but this he regretfully declined, hoping that in the course of time he would be able to carry out his program for the establishment of a museum in the United States after his own ideas. With this object in view, he undertook a nation-wide lecture tour.

Agassiz's health began to fail about 1855, when he abandoned the lecture field, and again turned his attention to writing.

In 1858, Francis C. Gray bequeathed the sum of $50,000 for the establishment of a museum of comparative zoology, which institution eventually became known as the Agassiz Museum, with Agassiz as its curator.

About this time, he took final and decisive steps toward the establishment of the National Academy of Sciences. His untiring efforts looking toward the promotion of such a national institution soon bore fruit, and in 1863 the National Academy of Sciences was incorporated by Congress.

He next ventured forth on an important scientific expedition, accompanied by his wife, who, in addition to being a brilliant writer, also acted as his secretary. They returned in 1866. Two years later, he accepted the position of non-resident professor of Cornell University, at Ithaca, New York.

In 1873, the legislature of Massachusetts accepted his plan for the establishment of a summer school of natural history on the Island of Penikese, off the coast of Massachusetts, and upon which he built the Anderson School of Natural History, at the same time declining the suggestion of having the institution named in his honor.

His failing health did not check his interest and enthusiasm, however, and he remained to the end (December, 1873) a liberal contributor to the transactions and proceedings of the various scientific organizations of America and Europe.

The scientific contributions which Agassiz made to America, and the influence which his work wrought during his long years as an American scientist and scholar, were excellently summarized in an address by Professor Henry Fairfield Osborn, president of the American Museum of Natural History, May 10, 1928, on the occasion of the unveiling of a bust of Louis Agassiz in the Hall of Fame of the New York University and of which the following extracts are a part:

> Nearly a century ago Louis Agassiz, following his friend Charpentier, boldly set before his confreres in the infant Academy of Neuchâtel the novel and apparently revolutionary theory of a Glacial

Age in which a mantle of ice covered the Alps and extended widely over Europe. This induction, conceived during his youthful encampment upon the Aar Glacier and his descent into its very heart led, step by step, to our present knowledge of the repeated glaciations not only of the northern hemisphere but of the entire globe.

The ten years between 1837 and 1847 Agassiz devoted to establishing his theory and from the time of his arrival in Massachusetts, in 1846, he was delighted to witness the vestiges of glaciation in North America, and before he passed away, in 1873, he experienced the conversion of a startling and phantastic hypothesis into a well established principle of the earth's history. This brilliant induction at the age of thirty yields the secret of Agassiz's great career, epitomized on the walls of Penikese Laboratory: "Read Nature, Not Books"; for, next to his unrivalled inspiration as a teacher came his revolutionary insistence upon direct recourse to nature, summed up in one of his most beautiful sentences: "If you study nature in books when you go out-of-doors you cannot find her."

The little Swiss Canton of Neuchâtel yielded no less than three great gifts of Switzerland to the United States: to Princeton University, Arnold Guyot, collaborator with Agassiz in glaciation; to our National Geological Survey, Leo Lesquereux, classmate and comrade in botany; to all America, Louis Agassiz, naturalist, geologist and zoologist.

The Swiss social revolution of 1848, which hastened the departure to our shores of these three great men, inaugurated among us a scientific metempsychosis, the effects of which are quite beyond calculation. Into our practically virgin field of natural history Agassiz brought the great traditions of his master, Cuvier, the brilliant founder of paleontology; of Humboldt, the most influential scientist of Europe; of the British geologists: Buckland, Murchison, Sedgwick and Lyell. While never destined to be a disciple of Darwin, he paved the way to newer conceptions of creation in his scientific researches on living and fossil fishes, as he did through the vistas of geologic time in his glaciation theory and in his insistence upon observation of nature.

Following to America the ardent French pioneers and explorers, Rafinesque, Bonaparte, Audubon and Lesson, Agassiz brought with him the great traditions and canons of the European school, as well as researches and publications in all branches of natural history, especially the life of the sea. Thus his third great contribution to America was his creation of a school of explorers of the world beneath the waters: a school which numbered among its pupils all the distinguished men of American biology enrolled in our National Academy of Sciences between the years 1846 and 1873, besides the hundreds and even thousands of laymen who were attracted by his contagious enthusiasm.

To his leadership, exerted to arouse public interest and attention, we owe directly our seashore laboratories and many of our museums. It was he who inspired young Albert Bickmore, the creator of the American Museum of Natural History, and his own son, Alexander, the founder and benefactor of the Cambridge Museum of Comparative Zoology, in the days when the national museum of the Smithsonian Institution and others were not yet dreamed of. Every American college and university of the fifties, sixties, and even seventies, filled its chair of zoology by a pupil of Agassiz. Thus his influence extended a thousandfold.

In physical appearance, Agassiz was a striking figure, almost six feet tall and compactly built, with a noble head and a broad, handsome face, usually illumined by a specially charming smile. This last would suddenly turn into a frown in the presence of careless or trivial work on the part of a student. He was kind hearted and benevolently inclined; his warmth of feeling went out equally to his colleagues and his neighbors. He was personally devoted to his students, who, in the highest sense, were comrades with him—the best friend that student ever had. As a teacher of science, he was the ablest America ever possessed.

Agassiz had an intensely religious mind, although he was totally out of sympathy with sects and creeds—the outer shell of Christianity. He cared little for dogma and ceremonial, but found in nature a constant revelation of his God. He said:

> The study of Nature is intercourse with the Highest Mind. You should never trifle with Nature; at her lowest her works are the works of the highest powers—the highest something in the universe, in whatever way we look at it. . . . That is the charm of study from nature herself; she brings us back to absolute trust, whenever we wander.

His funeral was attended by a large assemblage of distinguished people and devoted friends, in addition to the great scholastic body he had honored in life by his presence. He was buried in Mount Auburn Cemetery at Cambridge, Massachusetts, and his monument is a boulder from the moraine of the Lauteraar in Switzerland. At his death, Theodore Lyman, one of his pupils wrote:

> We buried him from the chapel that stands among the college elms. The students laid a wreath of laurel on his bier, and their manly voices sang a requiem; for he had been a student all his life long, and when he died he was younger than any of them.

A. Ba.

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ADOLPH FRANCIS ALPHONSE BANDELIER

Ethnologist and Archeologist

Born August 6, 1840, in Berne, Switzerland.
Died March 18, 1914, in Seville, Spain.

ADOLPH BANDELIER came to the United States in 1848 with his mother, who was to join her husband there. A year previous, the elder Bandelier had departed for Brazil, where he had been offered a very good position by the government of Emperor Dom Pedro II. After a short time, however, he decided that he did not care to reside in a country where slavery was rampant, and embarked for the United States. He settled at Highland, Illinois, an early Swiss settlement, about thirty miles east of St. Louis, and here he was joined by his wife and son, who previously had arrived from Switzerland.

The elder Bandelier purchased a large farm near Highland, and soon became legal adviser and intellectual leader of the Swiss colony at Highland. He also acted as honorary Swiss Consul there and later entered the banking business at that place.

In Switzerland, Adolph Bandelier from the age of four to eight had attended the Wengern School, a private institution in Berne, and, after settling in Highland, his father engaged private tutors for him.

In 1857, while on an extended visit to Switzerland, young Bandelier attended the University of Berne for two terms, specializing in geology under Professor Studer.

Some years later, he made a thorough and extended study of the aurora borealis, and the results of these observations may be found in several issues of the *Bulletin*, the official publication of the Observatory of Zürich in Switzerland.

For a short time, Adolph Bandelier was engaged in the banking business of his father. During the panic and industrial depression of 1873, the bank failed. However, the obligations of the bank were settled by Bandelier, who sacrificed his private fortune in the settlement of the institution's affairs. This was the only business enterprise with which he was ever connected.

The failure of the bank turned his mind to science. Ethnology and archeology became most engaging subjects to him. Thus, in a measure, he followed in the footsteps of his distinguished compatriots, Albert Gallatin and Albert Gatschet, pioneers in the study of aboriginal American languages. Lewis H. Morgan, the great American Indian ethnologist, became his adviser and friend in the pursuit of his studies in the United States, while in his Mexican explorations and research work, it was Don Joaquin Garcia Icazbalceta, who encouraged him greatly.

In 1877, Bandelier traveled extensively throughout Mexico and Central America for the purpose of studying the archeological and ethnological history of the aborigines of those countries. His treatises on these subjects were published by the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and contain a part of the results of his scientific investigations. In these publications he had shown a minute and thorough knowledge of the existing literature and sources of information pertaining to the subjects treated, and especially of the native races at the time of the Spanish Conquest.

Bandelier was familiar with several European languages and fond of linguistic studies, thus, to a marked degree, possessing the prerequisites for the ready acquisition of native dialects. Furthermore, he was enthusiastically devoted to his work, and always was ready and willing to undergo any hardships arising during his exploration trips.

The great historic ruins of the pueblo of Pecos in the Southwest were the first to receive Bandelier's attention. From Pecos, he extended his travels and researches to the Queros pueblo of Cochiti, in New Mexico, where he remained for two months, becoming intimately acquainted with the Indians, and eventually gaining their confidence to such an extent that he was adopted as a member of the tribe.

> My relations with the Indians of this pueblo, he wrote, are very friendly. Sharing their food, their hardships and their pleasures, simple as they are, a mutual attachment has been formed, which grows into sincere affection. They begin to treat me as one of their own and to exhibit toward me that spirit of fraternity which prevails among them in their communism.

His prolonged visit at Cochiti was followed by several others, all of which gave Bandelier a keen insight into the life and customs of these people. Similar observations, recorded by him at the Tewa pueblo of San Juan, furnished Bandelier with the material for his *The Delight Makers,* a novel of early Pueblo life. In 1881, Bandelier extended his research to Cholula, in Mexico, where he spent four months studying the famous pyramid, as well as the customs, habits, and religious beliefs of the natives, and especially the worship of the deity Quetzalcoatl, the traditional hero King of the Aztecs, for which Cholula was particularly celebrated. In June of that year, he went to Mitla, later to Tlacolula, and Monte Alban. After preparing a report on his Mexican observations, which was published in 1884, he returned to the United States to resume his investigations among the Pueblos. He continued studying along general lines from 1883 until the winter of 1886, and in the meantime made Santa Fé, New Mexico, his home. During these years, he penetrated almost every nook and corner of the territories of New Mexico and Arizona, and the Mexican states of Sonora and Chihuahua, and explored the country even farther southward into Mexico. He visited and described hundreds of ancient ruins, and in numerous cases made surveys of them.

His journeys throughout this vast area were almost always exclusively made on foot, and frequently were fraught with perils when invading the country of hostile Indians. His only weapon was a stick, a meter in length, which he used for measuring purposes. For his subsistence he relied upon the meager hospitality of the natives, who themselves were pitifully poor.

It was his purpose and ambition to correct the popular and prevailing theories in respect to the history, ethnology and archeology of the great Southwest. Eventually, he put at rest the fanciful tales regarding the ''Aztec'' origin of various pueblo ruins, namely: the perpetual fire of Pecos, the Montezuma myth among the Pueblos, the age of the City of Santa Fé, the location of the Seven Cities of Cibola, the routes of various early Spanish explorers, and many other fallacious traditions.

Bandelier also was the first person to offer scientific evidence, based upon actual experience and first-hand knowledge, to settle the varied problems concerning the condition and range of the Pueblo and other Indian tribes, prior to and after the Spanish period.

It has been said that no study pertaining to the history of the Indian tribes of the Southwest and of Northern Mexico can be undertaken without making use of the material uncovered by Bandelier during his various investigations. His acute sense of discrimination, combined with his sound judgment of the intent of early Spanish explorers and missionaries, was the means of placing in the hands of ethnological and archeological students the material for more intensive research.

What may be regarded as his outstanding achievement is his *Final Report of Investigations Among the Indians of the Southwestern United States,* which work mainly was carried on during the years 1880 to 1885. Of almost equal importance is his volume *Contributions to the History of the Southwestern Portion of the United States* (1890).

It was Bandelier's opinion that the only way in which ethnological research could successfully be conducted was by long and intimate association with the people to be studied. When, in 1886, the Hemenway Southwestern Archeological Expedition was organized, Bandelier was selected as its historiographer, thus attesting to his remarkable ability. After the termination of the expedition, in July, 1889, Bandelier's collection of copies of documents, comprising in all about 350 titles, together with a few originals, was incorporated in the Peabody Museum of Harvard University.

In 1887-88, Bandelier prepared an elaborate 1400-page manuscript entitled *Histoire de la Colonisation et des Missions du Sonora, Chihuahua, Nouveau Mexico et Arizona, Jusqu'a l'an 1700,* which was presented to Pope Leo XIII on the occasion of the Pontiff's Jubilee, and now reposes in the Vatican.

Bandelier's fields of operations now were shifted to Bolivia and the Island of Titicaca. The important collections which he gathered at those places were given to the American Museum of Natural History, for which the researches were made and with which he became officially connected in 1903. He next undertook the task of arranging his work for publication. In 1904, he was honored by Columbia University with the post of lecturer on Spanish-American Literature in its relationship to ethnology and archeology. He resigned this position in 1906 to accept an appointment with the Hispanic Society of America, under the auspices of which he prepared and published several contributions to South-American history and archeology. Bandelier practically suffered total blindness during 1909-11, caused by a cataract, but he continued his work, nobly aided by his wife, née Fanny Ritter. During the foregoing three years, important writings from his pen were published on South-American history, among them being *The Islands of Titicaca and Koati,* a book typical of his life-long crusade against mere tradition and for the truth.

In 1911, Bandelier was appointed research associate of the Carnegie Institution in Washington, D. C., and thereby was enabled to complete his studies of the Spanish documentary history concerning the Pueblo Indians.

He sailed for Spain in the autumn of 1913 for the purpose of continuing his research work in the archives of Madrid, Seville, and Simancas. While thus engaged at Seville, he was overtaken by death on March 18, 1914.

Bandelier was possessed of a charming personality and noble character. He was a staunch friend and a generous host, simplicity personified. His life was free of all sham and charlatanry, and above all, he abhorred notoriety and disliked outward insignia of honor and titles. He did, however, esteem the recognition accorded him by the scientific world.

In grateful acknowledgment of his valuable contributions to science in the domains of ethnology and archeology, the United States Government in 1916 created and dedicated a National Park to his memory. It is situated near Santa Fé, New Mexico, comprises some 22,000 acres, and abounds in natural beauty. The park also includes many cliff dwellings.

Among Bandelier's numerous publications are: *The Art of War and Mode of Warfare* (1877); *Archaeological Reconnaissance in Mexico* (1881); *Final Reports of Investigations Among the Indians of Southwestern United States, 1880-85* (1890-92); *The Gilded Man (El Dorado) and Other Pictures of the Spanish Occupancy of America* (1893); *Relative Antiquity of Ancient Peruvian Burials* (1904); *The Indians and Aboriginal Ruins of Chachapoyas, Peru* (1907); *The Islands of Titicaca and Koati* (1910).

A. BA.

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JACOB BOLL

Naturalist

Born May 29, 1828, at Bremgarten, Canton of Aargau, Switzerland.
Died September 29, 1880, in Wilbarger County, Texas.

THE merit of Jacob Boll as an indefatigable worker, explorer, and investigator in natural science, rests in the main on his contributions to scientific researches on the flora, fauna, and geology of Texas. During his two or three years' connection with the Harvard University Museum, he also made some investigations along these lines in Massachusetts and New England. His work in Harvard was carried on under the direction of his compatriot, Professor Louis Agassiz, the world-renowned natural scientist and zoologist.

Jacob Boll was born in the little town of Bremgarten, Canton of Aargau, May 29, 1828, the oldest of five children. His father, Henry Boll, was a man of moderate means; his mother was Magdalena (Peier) Boll. After attending the local schools of his home town, including high school, he advanced his education at the cantonal college (Gymnasium) in Aarau. As the young man evinced a predilection for further study, his father provided the means to have him attend the University of Jena, Germany. Here he studied chemistry, natural history, and pharmacy for about two years. In 1853, he left the university, without a degree, returned to his native town, became an apothecary and married Miss Henriette Humbel, who brought him a dowry with which he purchased a pharmacy.

However, Boll was too much interested in natural history and, therefore, inclined to neglect his business, which naturally suffered under these circumstances. During the many years he spent in the pharmacy, he continually collected plants and animals of his native Canton of Aargau. His botanical studies bore fruit in a small volume on the *Flora of Bremgarten and Vicinity*, published in 1869. During this period (1853-69), Boll also served as professor of natural history in the local high school, and was elected to membership in a number of scientific societies in Switzerland and Germany. His wife bore him three children;

but during the last five years of their married life she became an invalid and died in a sanitarium in 1873.

For years, during this period, he made annual and semi-annual explorations of the Alps. Says J. H. Brown in his "Memoir of the late Professor Jacob Boll," in the *Dallas Daily Herald,* October 7, 1880:

> He won a wide reputation by his researches and published essays. He was appointed by the Swiss government an examiner of physicians and pharmacists, and held the government seal in the departments of zoology and natural history. He was a collaborator on the geological map of Switzerland.

In 1869, he sold out his pharmacy, intending to recoup his losses in America, especially in Texas, to which state his brother Henry had emigrated some years before and become a member of the French communist colony La Reunion, near Dallas, founded by Victor Considerant on the phalansterian ideas of Fourierism. Then, too, the arrival of Boll's parents a few years later, who settled in Dallas, gave promise of that state also becoming the new home of Jacob.

In the latter part of 1869, he came to America, stopping first at Boston and Cambridge, at which place Professor Louis Agassiz (who in 1847 had accepted a professorship in zoology and geology in Harvard college, and with whom Boll had been in correspondence for a long time) received him with open arms and introduced him to the circle of young Swiss students who had entered Harvard, attracted by the radiant personality of Agassiz.

Agassiz at once engaged him for exploration work in Texas. Boll remained in Texas for about a year, during which he made a large collection of minerals, plants, insects, and various animals for Harvard Museum. During the winter of 1870, Boll returned to Cambridge, where he was made an assistant in the department of entomology of Harvard Museum and did expert work in remounting and re-arranging the collection of insects of the museum.

Early in 1871, he returned to Switzerland to look after business matters and took with him a lot of cocoons, with which he now experimented. At the behest of French scientists, he experimented with American silkworms, with a view of introducing a hardier species in France. The Cantonal Government of Aargau also requested his services in the investigation of the phylloxera-pest of the grape. Boll returned to America in the fall of

1871, and in the following winter collected several thousand specimens of the insects of New England for Harvard Museum.

In the spring of 1872, he was recalled to Switzerland by the serious illness of his wife. Here he remained and did research work with Professor H. von Frey, the celebrated entomologist at Zürich. He sent a collection of mollusks (in alcohol) to Harvard Museum of Comparative Zoology. After his wife died, in August, 1873, he wrote to Agassiz, expressing himself as ready to again accept a position under him. Agassiz, although the hand of death lay upon him, requested him to return. When Boll arrived in Cambridge, early in January of 1874, he first learned of Agassiz's death, which had occurred the month before. With his beloved preceptor gone, Boll joined his kin in Texas, where for seven years, from 1874 to September, 1880, he investigated the mineral resources of Texas and studied its natural history.

In Dallas, Boll met the brilliant young paleontologist, Edward D. Cope, of Philadelphia, who at that time was a competitor and rival of the famous expert of American vertebrate paleontology, Professor O. C. Marsh of Yale University. Cope had been in the West for some years, exploring this field. When he met Boll, he at once saw that this was his man. He engaged him to explore and investigate in the wilderness of northwest Texas, the so-called Permian country. From 1878 until his death in 1880, Boll worked for Professor Cope. He discovered numerous remarkable extinct vertebrates, 32 species in all, and was the first to describe them. In a paper published in the *American Naturalist,* September, 1880, he was the first to identify the Permian rocks of Texas, and discovered and reported the occurrence of various mineral deposits in northern and western Texas.

Besides that he made splendid collections of living reptiles, amphibians and fishes for Cope. But, admirable as was the work done by Boll in his early collections for Harvard Museum under Agassiz, it cannot be compared with this last work: his fossil collecting for Cope. When one considers the all but insuperable difficulties under which he worked, the wilderness of the country, the roads hardly passable, even at the most favorable times of the year, his distance from base of supplies—one easily recognizes the kind of material of which this Swiss scientist was made.

During his seven years' stay in Texas, Boll gained the confidence and esteem of governors and legislators by his investigations, and, at the time of his unexpected death a movement was on foot to establish a geological survey of Texas, with Boll at its head. In this same period, he was appointed special assistant of the United States Entomological Commission in charge of Texas, for the study of the Rocky Mountain locust; and his report to the Commission on the subject was printed in 1878 as an appendix to the first report of that official body.

Boll collected insect specimens for museums from the entire world, and was in correspondence with many of the famous contemporaneous naturalists. In recognition of his scientific experiments in entomology, he was elected to membership in the "Academia Caesarea Leopoldino-Carolina Naturae Curiosorum" of Germany, an organization that included in its membership the emininet students of natural history of that country.

Death came to the explorer on September 29, 1880, in the dug-out of a collecting camp on the Pease River near its confluence with the Red River. Here, surrounded by the fossils he had gathered in the last few days of his work, attended by his teamster, a mere boy—who was terrified by the sufferings of his companion, he succumbed to peritonitis after an illness of ten days. As to the personal characteristics of this gentle-spirited, modest, soft-spoken, and quiet Swiss naturalist, may be cited the words of humble acquaintances of sixty years ago, still resident in Dallas:

> I can remember him so plainly, riding upon his little yellow pony 'Gypsy' to his home at the corner of Swiss and Germania avenues, said one. We thought him peculiar because he caught butterflies and snakes. And yet he was very good to us.
>
> And a white-haired woman said: He was so kind to us little children and used to let us feed his silkworms and look at the Mastodon skeleton when we had found insects for him. I never knew him to speak unkindly to any one. His one passion was music, which affected him deeply.

S. W. G.

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C. HERMANN BOPPE

Journalist, Radical Thinker, and Publicist

Born June 21, 1842, in Zug, Switzerland.
Died January 12, 1899, in Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

C. HERMANN BOPPE politically was a radical Democrat, idealizing the progressive and liberal constitution of the Swiss Republic, as it was evolved in its remaking in 1848, and its revision in 1874; and again, here in America he was an ardent Jeffersonian Democrat, but working for the reshaping of the American Constitution so as to make it conform more to the elasticity and simplicity of the Swiss. In his religious or ethical convictions, he was a free thinker in the manner of Thomas Paine and Robert G. Ingersoll.

He was born June 21, 1842, in Zug, Switzerland, where his father was an administrative official; the family in 1847, when the religious conflict between Catholics and Protestants arose, removed to Baden, Canton of Aargau. Later his father settled in Wettingen, across the River Limmat from the town of Baden, and held many public offices until he retired at a ripe, old age.

In Wettingen, Boppe lived through happy childhood days, received his early educational training in the public schools, and this later was supplemented by home studies under the supervision of his parents, who were anxious that Hermann should be accorded every advantage. In due time, he attended the Cantonal School in Aarau, the Teachers' Normal School at Wettingen, and finally, the Academy at Lausanne. While attending the Cantonal School, with the intention of preparing for the law, he also became a fine athlete, as well as a cadet in the corps at Aargau, in which organization he soon advanced to be an officer.

As he advanced, his eyesight began to fail him, and he was forced to abandon his studies. Although somewhat depressed, he decided to seek some other vocation. He had an uncle in America who operated a brewery at Newark, New Jersey, and who invited him to come to America. Hermann arrived there in 1861, and took a position as bookkeeper in the brewery. However, the mere routine work did not satisfy him, and soon thereafter he took an active part in the organization of various Swiss benevolent and educational societies. Though very young, he several times was elected president of the Newark Grütli Verein, and chosen to represent that society as delegate to various conventions in Pittsburgh and Washington.

He became a staunch supporter of the principles of the newly formed Republican Party, of which Lincoln was the standard-bearer. He also was an ardent admirer of Karl Peter Heinzen, the German-American radical thinker, and editor of the *Boston Pionier*.

At the time of the Greeley campaign in 1872, Boppe became editor of the *Newark Post,* a German daily newspaper with progressive tendencies. Afterwards, he assumed the editorship of the *Freie Presse* at Elizabeth, New Jersey. As a delegate of the Progressive Society of Elizabeth, he participated in the convention of the German-American Radical Association in Philadelphia. The *Freidenker* was the association's organ. It was published in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, and when, in 1877, the paper under the well-known socialist, Joseph Brucker, steered more and more into socialist tendencies, Karl Peter Heinzen, radical journalist, recommended Boppe to the publishers of that newspaper, and in 1877 he was called to take over the editor's chair. Boppe now entered upon his real career as the intellectual leader of German-American radicalism and free thought in America. Under his editorship, the *Pionier* and *Freidenker* were consolidated soon after Heinzen retired.

Boppe also became an active member of the Turnerbund, or German-American Gymnastic Union. At its convention in Pittsburgh in 1877, the Turnerbund selected the *Freidenker* as its official organ, but soon thereafter a separate issue under the name of *Turn-Zeitung,* containing in part the identical reading matter as carried in the *Freidenker,* was published from the same office, with Boppe as editor of both papers.

Henceforth, he occupied a leading position in the councils of the Freidenker Bund, as well as the Turnerbund, and became the recognized leader at the various conventions of both organizations. He was an ever-ready debater and good speaker. He also was a prolific politico-economic-educational pamphleteer.

For many years, Boppe edited the *Freidenker and Turner Almanacs,* his fine literary taste and vast knowledge on educational, sociological, political, economic questions, and art matters standing him in good stead. Along educational lines, he became renowned in Milwaukee as one of the founders of the German-American Teachers' Seminary or Normal College, was its ethical and educational mentor, and through his personal efforts it became a successful institution in the graduation of teachers capable of instructing in both the German and English schools. He was on its board of directors until his death, and for more than 30 years exercised a splendid influence as a writer, editor, lecturer, and educational organizer and adviser.

He was very much interested in maintaining the German language in this country, together with the highest German ideals, which were inseparable from his mental make-up. He realized, however, that America was essentially an English-speaking country, and his political tenets always were thoroughly American and at all times in harmony with those of Jefferson and Lincoln.

Throughout life, he maintained his affiliation with the Swiss societies of Newark and Milwaukee. In 1876, at the World's Fair in Philadelphia, he took part in the celebration of the commemoration of the Battle of St. Jacob, which the Swiss-Americans had inaugurated there, and, on that occasion delivered an excellent address on ''The New Political Development in Switzerland.'' Boppe was a worthy successor of Karl Peter Heinzen, the German-American radical. In later years, he refused to align himself with any political party, reserving the right to be independent. He believed in the principles of Jeffersonian democracy, which had come to full fruition in Switzerland, he thought; and he believed in the continuance of the progress and betterment of social institutions through the channels of better education, as well as independent thinking on the part of the citizens and the exercising of their rights at the ballot box.

He was married in 1889 to Magdalene Schiess, a Milwaukee school teacher who was imbued with the same ideals as her husband. They made a journey to his old home in Switzerland in 1892 and enjoyed a visit with his aged father. In 1898 he was stricken with a nervous breakdown and his old trouble of ailing eyesight returned, thus making it impossible to carry on his work. He died in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, January 12, 1899, and his remains were cremated. A. R.

Sources of Information:

Biography in *Freidenker*, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, January 20, 1899.

Geschichte und Leben der Schweizer Kolonien in den Ver. Staaten (1889), by Dr. Steinach.

FLORIAN CAJORI

Mathematician, Physicist, and Astronomer

Born February 28, 1859, in St. Aignan, Canton of Grisons, Switzerland.
Died August 14, 1930, at Berkeley, California.

FLORIAN CAJORI was the scion of an ancient and prominent family of the Canton of Grisons. Members of the Cajori families (also spelled Cajöri and Cagieri), of which there are several branches, have played a conspicuous rôle for hundreds of years as soldiers, statesmen, scholars, and clergy. The family, as the name implies, is of Romansh origin. The father of Florian, George Cajori, was a civil engineer. His mother's name was Catherine Camenisch, also of a well-known Grisons family. The subject of this sketch received his primary and grammar school education at Thusis; he then attended the college at Chur, and at the age of sixteen left that institution without completing his studies.

On the invitation of an older brother who previously had emigrated to the United States, he also came to America, and soon after attended the State Normal School at Whitewater, Wisconsin. After two years, he prepared himself to enter the University of Wisconsin, from which he graduated in 1883 with the degree of B.S., receiving the degree of M.S. there in 1886.

After taking his bachelor's degree, he spent a year and a half at Johns Hopkins University (January, 1884, to June, 1885). He then was elected professor of mathematics of Tulane University at New Orleans, becoming professor of applied mathematics at the same institution in 1887. In 1889, Cajori received a call from Colorado College as professor of physics, which position he held for nine years, when he changed to teaching mathematics at the same institution, and, at the same time, also served as dean of the department of engineering from 1903 to 1918.

In the meantime, his renown had spread through the publication of important works on the history of mathematics, and in 1918 he received a flattering call from the University of California to accept the position of professor of the history of mathematics. Perhaps no other university ever had created such a chair for a scholar. Furthermore, he was given free rein in research work, and in writing and teaching in this particular field. This appointment, indeed, was an exceptional honor, and in bestowing it upon Professor Cajori, the university was amply rewarded by the result of Cajori's fine work. On July 1, 1929, in his 71st year, he was permitted to retire from active teaching with a title of professor emeritus.

Professor Cajori's literary activity in his chosen field was unlimited; the list of his contributed articles in scientific journals, both in America and Europe, is extensive; and the subjects treated give evidence of his wide range of interests in the field of history and science. The total number of items in his bibliography, during the forty years that he was active in writing, is estimated to run between three and four hundred. He also wrote several noteworthy textbooks.

However, he is best known for his numerous historical works. The first of these was *The Teaching and History of Mathematics in the United States,* published in 1890. In this work, he laid out a line of study which was quite new in America and materially aided in creating an interest in the subjects treated.

The next three works published were in the nature of general histories in the fields of his major interests: *The History of Mathematics* which appeared in 1894; the *History of Elementary Mathematics* in 1896; and the *History of Physics* in 1899. His first real opportunity to display his ability came when Moritz Cantor invited him to contribute a section on arithmetic to Volume IV of the *Vorlesung en über Geschichte der Mathematik* (Leipzig, 1908). This was a distinct honor. He went directly to the original sources and thus was enabled to write an authoritative work. Florian Cajori will be remembered for his historical writings, the publication of which extended over a period of forty years, and, as previously stated, pertain to the special science of history of mathematics. He now had found himself, and devoted his entire energy and scientific acumen to this special subject of historical research, and soon a new era opened for his work.

On September 3, 1890, Cajori married Elizabeth G. Edwards, of St. Louis. A son, Florian A. Cajori, now living in Philadelphia, was born to them.

In 1909 appeared the *History of the Logarithmic Slide Rule* emanating from and suggested to him partly by his duties as dean of the department of engineering at Colorado College, and partly by his studies resulting from his contributions to the

Cantor project. He no longer was content with depending upon the works of others; now others began to depend upon him.

The study of the ''Slide Rule'' led him in 1916 to write his first biographical work, the *William Oughtred,* in which he gave a worthy resumé of the life of this seventeenth century mathematician, perhaps the greatest that England ever produced.

In 1917 and 1919, he gave his two histories of mathematics a thorough revision, improving both their style and content. His *History of Elementary Mathematics* was translated into Japanese in 1928, while his *History of Physics* was revised in 1929. After accepting the chair of history of mathematics at Berkeley, he wrote another biography, *The Chequered Career of Ferdinand Rudolph Hassler—First Superintendent of the United States Coast Survey,* published in 1929. In this work he gave evidence of extensive search for material, which he skillfully used to make his description of the life and works of his famous Swiss-American compatriot a worthy and deserving contribution to the history of science of the New World.

However, three special studies in the history of mathematics stand out above all the rest; they illustrate the words of the greatest of the poets laureate of England: That men may rise on stepping stones of their dead selves to higher things.

Most of his previous publications were but stepping stones when compared with his works during his last years at Berkeley, namely: *History of the Concepts of Limits and Fluxions in Great Britain from Newton to Woodhouse,* which gave proof of more careful examination of sources than any of his previous works. It was in the preparation of this work that he found a stimulus for his essay on *Newton's Fluxions* and the one on the *Law of Gravitation,* each of which appeared for the Bicentenary meeting in honor of Newton, in New York in 1927; and perhaps for the edition of the *Principia and Optics,* upon which he almost had completed the work at the time of his death, and which will be published. His second special study was *The Early Mathematical Sciences in North and South America* (1928), a series of essays, and genuine contribution to the history of science in the New World. This work deals with astronomy, geodesy, and physics, rather than with pure mathematics, and shows the early influence of England and Spain at a time when these three subjects were uppermost in the application of science. In the same year, he published his *Mathematics in a Liberal Education,* an appeal for better knowledge of the purpose of mathematical training.

The third of his special studies will stand out as the real monument to Professor Cajori's life work, *The History of Mathematical Notations* in which he appears at his best, and long after our current histories of mathematics are forgotten, this, his final literary labor, will remain as one of the most important contributions of our time to any of the special phases of the general subject. That he lived to see the conclusion of this work, and the worthy form in which it was issued, must have been highly gratifying to him, as it also is to scholars generally throughout the world of science.

Among the honors conferred upon him by institutions of learning, may be mentioned the following: He held the degrees of Ph.D. (Tulane, 1894;) LL.D. (University of California, 1930, and Colorado College, 1913,) and Sc.D. (Wisconsin, 1913).

He was a member of the American Mathematical Society, the Mathematical Association of America (president, 1917), the Deutsche Mathematiker-Vereinigung, the American Association for the Advancement of Science (vice-president of Section L, 1923), the Mathematical Association (England), the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, the History of Science Society (council member), and the Circolo Matematico di Palmero. He also was a fellow of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. Cajori was held in high esteem by those who knew him personally, or through his writings. His gentle manner and unfailing kindness endeared him to all who came in personal contact with him, and there was established a bond between him and thousands of scholars and students whom he led to appreciate more fully the range of the science to which his worthy life was so completely and arduously devoted.

Although born in Switzerland, and partly educated in his homeland, he may properly be classed as an American scientist, inasmuch as his higher education was obtained in the United States, where he had resided since his sixteenth year. Cajori, although foreign born, is one of the numerous figures of eminence who have lent luster to the United States. His fame is destined to expand as a better evaluation of his contributions to the science of mathematics, and particularly its history, is worked out and firmly established. A. R.

Sources of Information:

"Florian Cajori," by David Eugene Smith in the *Bulletin of the American Mathematical Society,* Nov., 1930.

Data furnished to the writer by the subject's son, Lieutenant Florian Anton Cajori, of Philadelphia, Pa.

JOHN FRIEDRICH

Journalist and Political Leader

Born August 17, 1847, in Büren zum Hof, Canton of Berne, Switzerland.
Died March 7, 1900, in Brooklyn, New York.

JOHN FRIEDRICH (whose real name was John Friedrich Schwab) was born at Büren zum Hof, Canton of Berne, August 17, 1847. He attended the grade and high schools of his native town, and, in 1864, entered the normal school for teachers at Muenchenbuchsee, but gave up the idea of becoming a pedagogue, and from 1867 to 1871 he studied law and political economy at the University of Berne.

Shortly afterwards, he emigrated to the New World, and, after getting his bearings, he entered the law firm of Edward and Ashbel Fitch in New York. The practice of law did not appeal to him very strongly, so in 1873, he took up journalism instead, and followed that career to the end of his life.

At first he worked in a reportorial and editorial capacity on German papers. He then founded a trade journal, the *German-American Grocer,* afterwards published under the name of *Retail Grocers' Advocate.* He also founded *The New South,* a bilingual weekly, to promote the industrial and commercial resources of the South.

In 1885, Friedrich became financially interested in the Swiss-American Publishing Co., publishers of the *Amerikanische Schweizer Zeitung,* New York, at the same time taking editorial charge of the paper. His business acumen and his intellectual capacity soon destined him to become the sole proprietor of the paper, which was the medium of the Swiss element in the United States and, under his able management and eminent editorial policy, attained to a large circulation throughout the United States and Canada. His success also prompted him to publish a paper in the French language, *La Croix Federale,* which catered to the French-speaking element of the Swiss in America.

Having a natural bent for politics, Friedrich kept in touch with the political trend of his native country; and, in the land of his adoption, he also took an active interest in the political development with a view to establishing the clean and progressive political atmosphere of the Swiss system and a more enlightened citizenship in the United States. It is due to his influence that the laws enacted by the Federal legislative bodies of Switzerland were published in the English-language papers of America, with a view to enhance Swiss prestige in the United States and to direct the attention of American legislators to excellent laws that were at that time enacted in Switzerland.

As a naturalized citizen of Swiss nativity, Friedrich, in accordance with the Swiss character, assumed a position of independence in political matters. His advice, however, was sought by many political leaders. In 1884, he became prominent among the reformers who were fighting the then powerful, but corrupt, political organization known as ''Tammany Hall.'' He was a forceful and convincing speaker, and became one of the leaders in the movement directed against a corrupt political machine. He also was a conspicuous figure in other reform movements.

Friedrich, as might be surmised, took a great interest in civic and educational matters of New York City. He worked energetically in favor of the introduction of physical training (Turnen) into the public schools of the metropolis.

As a journalist, Friedrich was highly esteemed by his colleagues. He was a leading member of the New York Press Club and of the International League of Press Clubs. In the former, he was honored with the office of president for three years. As a member of the I. L. of P. C., he worked for the establishment of a home for invalid journalists. He also served as delegate to various national and international congresses of the American and German-American press.

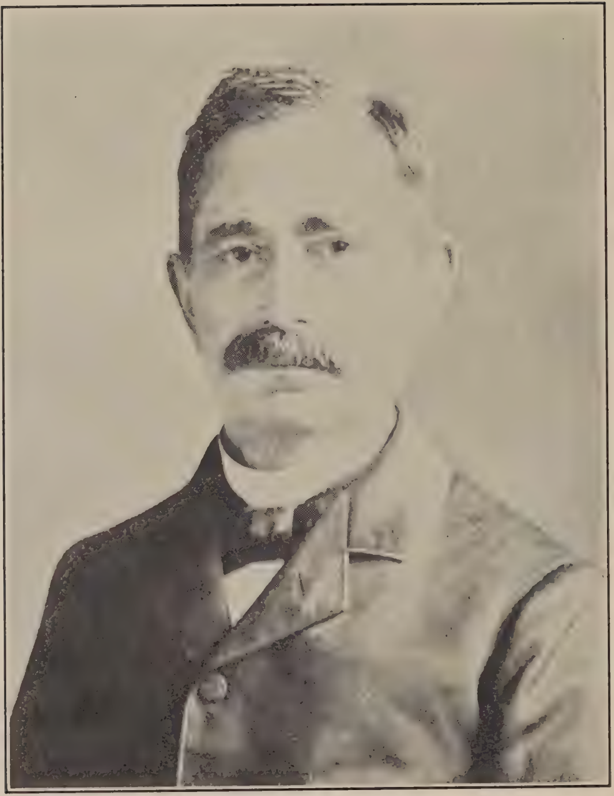
In many lines of activity, Friedrich exerted a positive influence for advanced and liberal ideas, and the enactment of measures that were conducive to the welfare of the community, and in this he was unprejudiced as to politics, race, or creed. He was a man of broadminded caliber, honest, and outspoken in his convictions, and scrupulously conscientious in his dealings with his fellowmen.

He knew no greater joy than to assist his fellow citizens with counsel, and, in a practical way, to work for progressive, genuinely democratic ideals and measures in politics, in civic and social improvements and betterments; and also to promote the interests of his Swiss compatriots in the United States to the best of his ability. And in all these endeavors he was successful to an eminent degree. He died in Brooklyn. March 7, 1900.

F. W. M.

Sources of Information:

Family papers and personal acquaintance of the author with the subject.



ALBERT S. GATSCHET

ALBERT SAMUEL GATSCHET

Philologist and Ethnologist

Born October 3, 1832, at St. Beatenberg, Canton of Berne, Switzerland.
Died March 16, 1907, in Washington, D. C.

ALBERT SAMUEL GATSCHET was the son of the Reverend Karl Albert Gatschet and Marie (née Ziegler) Gatschet, and born in the picturesque village of St. Beatenberg, situated on an eminence above the Lake of Thun. When he was about ten years old, his mother died, and he came under the care of his elder sister Louise, for whom he retained a lasting and cherished affection. During his early youth, his bereavement for his mother was accentuated by the unfriendly attitude of his father, who made the boy depend entirely upon his own resources. In later life, his father's harsh treatment left an indelible and depressive effect upon him.

As a young man, while attending the lyceums of Neuchâtel and Berne, he showed a marked aptitude for linguistic studies. In 1852, he entered the University of Berne, where he remained for six years. From Berne he went to the University of Berlin to take up special courses in languages, history, art, and theology. His favorite studies at Berne were Greek and doctrinal criticism. The latter study influenced him to such an extent that for a while he was tempted to enter the ministry. However, his linguistic bent overcame this desire.

At that time, Alexander von Humboldt was the luminary of natural science in Berlin, and Gatschet, like so many other students, was greatly inspired by the wonderful career of this "grand old man of science," whose remarkable achievements made a lasting impression upon him. Completing his studies at the University of Berlin, he returned to his native land, and became a contributor to various scientific and literary publications.

In 1867, Gatschet published his first important work: *Orts-Etymologische Forschungen,* a philological study of Swiss place-names in their Keltic, Latin, German, and French origins. After that, he spent some time, studying in the museums of Paris and London.

In January of the following year, he emigrated to the United States, and for some years, resided in New York City, earning his livelihood as a teacher of languages and as contributor to foreign and American scientific journals. He was a master of the French and German languages.

At the time of the organization of the Bureau of American Ethnology in 1879, Dr. Gatschet became a member thereof and remained with it until his retirement in 1905. The earlier years of his connection with that institution were spent chiefly in active field service, with intervals of office work for the purpose of elaborating on the results achieved.

Up to this time, very little study had been made of the native Indian languages of North America since the time that Albert Gallatin had given North American ethnology an impetus by his earlier researches.

In 1881, he completed an exhaustive study of the linguistic material of the Timucua tribes of Northern Florida recorded by Father Pareja during 1612-14. He also visited the remaining tribes of the famous Catawbas in South Carolina and Louisiana. His work in connection with these studies forms the sole basis of the classification of Indian languages.

Gatschet, in the winter of 1884-85, extended his research to Indian tribes in Oklahoma, Texas, and southwestern Louisiana, thereby greatly augmenting the knowledge of Indian ethnology of the southern region of the United States.

His studies of the Gulf tribes were summarized in his elaboration of the Greek Migration Legend. Throughout his career he gave special study to American Indian languages. While his success in this connection was due to sifting old missionary catechisms, and utilizing his vacation periods for trips to Indian reservations, he chiefly gained his knowledge by a series of systematic interviews with the numerous Indian delegations visiting Washington.

Among Gatschet's more important miscellaneous studies must be mentioned his research work concerning the Beothuk, an extinct people of Newfoundland.

His monograph on *The Klamath Tribe and Languages of Oregon,* published in 1890, and consisting of an exhaustive study of an American language, may be said to mark an epoch in linguistic researches.

In the historic Algonquinian area, Gatschet investigated some fifteen cognate languages or dialects. The Bureau of American

Ethnology then directed him to collate his studies into a comprehensive grammar of the Algonquinian languages, arranged in comparative form. While engaged in this laborious task, he was stricken with a lingering illness, which eventually culminated in his retirement in 1905, and on March 16, 1907, he died in Washington, D. C.

Besides the publications already mentioned, Dr. Gatschet was the author of a large number of briefer papers on linguistic subjects. His manuscripts, left for safe-keeping with the Bureau of American Ethnology, cover nearly one hundred languages and dialects.

Gatschet was thorough and conscientious in his work, and honest to the core. He would brook no half measures, and had no patience with pseudo-science. He searched for the facts and frowned on theories.

When Gatschet began his researches, the science of philology in the United States was in its infancy, with only a small coterie of devotees, but within this circle his name was authoritative. When ethnology takes its proper place as the essential basis of anthropology, his name will stand in the front rank of American scientists with those of his distinguished compatriots, Gallatin, Agassiz, and Bandelier. A. Ba.

Source of Information:
American Anthropologist, vol. ix, No. 8, July-Sept., 1907.

ARNOLD HENRI GUYOT

Geologist

Born September 28, 1807, at Boudevilliers, Canton of Neuchâtel, Switzerland.

Died February 8, 1884, at Princeton, N. J.

ARNOLD HENRI GUYOT—Arnold, as he was best known—studied at La Chaux-de-Fonds, at Neuchâtel, at Stuttgart, and at Karlsruhe. He visited the last-named cities in order to perfect his knowledge of German, but his friendship with the Braun family at Karlsruhe probably affected his career more than did any other event of his early life. Here, with Agassiz, Carl Schimper, Imhoff of Basle, and the younger members of the Braun family, he became deeply interested in natural science.

Although his studies at the Académie of Neuchâtel, whither he returned in 1827, and his first semesters at the University of Berlin, were devoted to theology, he finally abandoned it and took up geography and the natural sciences. In 1835, he received his Ph.D. degree at the Berlin institution. While much of his education was received abroad, he was devotedly attached to Switzerland.

From 1835 to 1839, he was the tutor of the children of Count de Pourtales-Gorgier. With them, at times, he traveled over Southern Europe, or resided in Paris, employing his leisure in study and exploration, or in cultivating close relations with French men of science.

In 1839, Guyot returned to Neuchâtel, where he delivered some lecture courses. These created so favorable an impression that he was called to the double chair of history and geography of the Académie of Neuchâtel in 1841. He continued in this position until the institution was suppressed, as a result of the Revolution of 1848.

Guyot's scientific work until 1848, had been far more important than his teaching. With Agassiz, he devoted himself to the phenomena of glacial action, spending all his summers in the heart of the Alps, and later in the Jura, the Rhine, and Rhone

ARNOLD GUYOT

valleys, and on the Italian slopes of the Alps. His extraordinary knowledge of geology permitted him to recognize the exact origin of the glacial boulders, and by this means to determine the size and direction of the great glaciers which formerly flowed in all directions from the Alps.

Even before his return to Neuchâtel, Guyot, in September, 1838, addressed a communication to the Société géologique de France at Porrentruy in which he stated the five laws of glacial action.

He took many soundings in the lakes of Neuchâtel and Morat, and, in 1842, together with one of his former pupils, Henri de Pourtales-Gorgier, published the first map, with soundings, of a Swiss lake.

Louis Agassiz was at Cambridge, Massachusetts, at the outbreak of the Revolution of 1848, the result of which deprived Guyot of his chair at the Académie of Neuchâtel. Agassiz immediately wrote to his friend, urging him to come to the United States, which he did, leaving Neuchâtel August 3 with his nephew, Ernest Sandoz, and joining Agassiz near Boston.

Guyot scarcely had landed before he accompanied Agassiz to the first meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science at Philadelphia, where he himself was elected a member. There he met a number of American scientists, including Joseph Henry, Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution. Leaving Philadelphia, he made a short trip through Pennsylvania and, after a brief tour of that commonwealth, went to Princeton, New Jersey where, for the first time, he met Charles Hodge, the theologian.

Agassiz was anxious to introduce Guyot to American audiences, and early in 1849 arranged to have him deliver a course of lectures at the Lowell Institute in Boston. In view of the fact that Guyot had not yet acquired the English language, he lectured in French, which naturally limited the size of his audience. However, Professor C. C. Felton of Harvard, later president of that institution, each evening translated Guyot's French text into English and transmitted the manuscript to the *Boston Traveler* in time to have it appear in the morning edition on the following day. Felton's translation appeared later that year in book form under the title *Earth and Man,* and probably is Guyot's best-known book.

The original edition of 5,000 volumes was rapidly sold out, and, through the discussion of this work, Guyot at once became a well-known figure. *Earth and Man* owed its success to the fact that it was the first clear interpretation of the newer scientific doctrines of Alexander von Humboldt and Carl Ritter.

Guyot settled at Cambridge, Massachusetts, where he was joined by his mother and sisters, and where he remained until 1855. Through his friendship with Joseph Henry, he practically became the director, as well as the founder, of the Meteorological Bureau of the Smithsonian Institution. He undertook the preliminary organization of the state meteorological service for the Regents of the University of New York, and issued a book of instructions for its observers. Under the auspices of the State Board of Education, he lectured on the more modern methods of teaching geography to the teachers throughout the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. At this period of his life, he also delivered lectures at various colleges in New England.

In 1854, Daniel Price of Newark, New Jersey, agreed to furnish the College of New Jersey, now Princeton University, funds for a chair in physical geography and geology, in the event that Arnold Guyot could be prevailed upon to accept it. This he did, and in 1855 moved to Princeton with his family. He remained at the university as a professor until his death. In addition to his lectures at the college, Guyot carried on many activities. Each year he directed the field work of a number of students, some of whom were responsible for the launching of the field expedition of 1877, which marked a new era in scientific work at Princeton.

By 1881, Guyot had investigated the Appalachians (particularly the Adirondacks, Catskills, and Smoky Mountains). He also measured altitudes in the Sierra Nevadas and the Rockies.

Arnold Guyot was deeply interested in the development of the rudimentary museum which, at the time of his arrival, existed at Princeton. His unceasing labors in this direction, coupled with the generous support of William Libbey, father of the late Professor William Libbey, Jr., of Princeton, enabled him to assemble valuable collections, which ultimately made the Princeton Museum a prominent institution, and on a par with the museum created at Harvard by Agassiz, which at the time was one of the most valued and notable in the United States.

Guyot served Princeton in more impalpable, but not less valuable ways. He did much to widen and free its intellectual atmosphere. He was a European with a European training and European friends. These friends visited him at Princeton, and frequently he supplied them with letters of introduction to Americans traveling abroad. He was a member of the geographical societies in London and in Paris.

His wall maps and atlases won for him the Medal of Progress at the Vienna Exposition in 1873, and the Gold Medal at the Paris Exposition in 1878. It might be well to note in passing that Guyot's atlases and manuals of geography—some seven in number having appeared by 1875, and published in this country by Charles Scribner's Sons of New York—rescued the study of geography from the aridity into which it had fallen in the United States. The reputation which Guyot enjoyed during his lifetime, is reflected by the eminence of his associates. Among his intimate Swiss friends were the scientists Leo Lesquereux, Edouard Desor, G. A. Matile, as well as Cesar Pronier, Frederic de Rougemont, and Frederic Godet, the theologians, and Felix Bovet. In America, he was closely associated with four college presidents, Cornelius C. Felton of Harvard, James McCosh of Princeton, Frederick Barnard of Columbia, and Daniel C. Gilman of Johns Hopkins. He was a friend of well-known literary men—Edward Everett, H. W. Longfellow, and Jared Sparks—and, among American theologians he enjoyed the friendship of Dr. Kirk of Boston, William Adams of New York, and Charles Hodge of Princeton. The most intimate of his scientific friends in America, were Louis and Alexander Agassiz, Joseph Henry, and James D. Dana of Yale. John Torrey, the botanist, of Columbia, and Stephen Alexander may also be included.

He received his only honorary degree in America in 1854, when he was made an LL.D. at Union College, Schenectady, New York. Guyot was a stimulating and successful teacher. Among his best-known American pupils may be mentioned Professor W. B. Scott, who recently completed fifty years of teaching at Princeton; Dr. Henry Fairfield Osborn, president of the American Museum of Natural History in New York, and the late William Libbey, Jr., professor of physical geography of Princeton, who died in 1927.

His standing is attested by the prominence of the institutions at which he delivered special courses. For several years, he lectured at the Princeton Theological Seminary, and was professor of physical geography at the State Normal School at Trenton, New Jersey. On two occasions, he delivered courses of lectures at the Smithsonian Institution, and also lectured at the Union Theological Seminary in New York City. At the time of the opening of Agassiz's school on Penikese Island, in Buzzard's Bay, Massachusetts, he taught geology there.

His modesty, as well as his industry, attracted all who knew him, and his whole character was one of rare charm.

A word is necessary on Guyot's attitude toward evolution. Many years before Darwin's *Origin of Species* appeared, Arnold Guyot had completed his formal education and was engaged in teaching. Guyot opposed the evolutionary doctrine, but he shared with his friend Agassiz the ''doctrine of development.'' The latter doctrine accepted a series of species appearing one after another, and recognized the analogy of these forms with the successive forms in embryonic development. As a result, it differed from evolution only in postulating the fixity of species and a special act of creation for each of them.

The order of species accepted by Guyot and Agassiz coincided with the order held by the evolutionists. To his dying day the terms ''evolution'' and ''evolutionist'' were repugnant to Guyot, and yet his intimate friend, James D. Dana, professor of geology at Yale, and the man best qualified to judge, in 1890 stated that Guyot, before his death, had accepted evolution, though with some reservations.

It is clear that the doctrine of development had much in common with the doctrine of evolution, and differed from it only on two points—the fixity of species, and the requirement of a special act of creation for the forming of each new one. It was simple enough for pupils instilled with the development theory, to accept evolution, as the latter doctrine does not require a disbelief in God as the first cause. The only change necessary is the acceptance of a gradual transmutation of forms in place of a series of sudden creations. On one point Guyot would make no concessions—he denied the animal ancestry of physical man.

His greatest scientific work was his discovery of the data which led him to the formulation of the laws of glacial action, and his creation of meteorological stations and systems of observation. His chief services to the United States were his introduction of improved instruments; his revivification of geography as a science; his improvement of the maps and textbooks, as well as the methods of teaching geography in the public schools; his development of the museum at Princeton, and, perhaps most important of all, his combining modern scientific theories with religious views, so that he was enabled to spare many of his contemporaries the feeling that they must choose between religion and science.

His powerful scientific mind, combined with a firm faith, enabled him to perform one of his greatest services—the exposition, written as well as oral, of the newer scientific doctrines, in terms which rendered possible their assimilation by the layman of his time.

Besides papers and communications published in French before 1848, Guyot's most important works were *Earth and Man* (1849); physical maps of the *Smoky Mountains of North Carolina* (1861), and of the *Catskills,* (1880); *Physical and Meteorological Tables,* published by the Smithsonian Institution 1852, 1857, 1859, and 1884; a treatise of ''Physical Geography'' in *Johnson's Family Atlas of the New World* (1873); and *Creation of the Biblical Cosmogony in the Light of Modern Science* (1884). This last work, corrected on his death-bed, and which Guyot asked to be considered as his scientific testament, was a development of his ''Cosmogony of the Bible,'' which appeared in 1873 in the *Report of the Sixth Evangelical Alliance.*

The most recent French work dealing with this distinguished scientist is ''Arnold Guyot et Princeton,'' by Dr. Leonard Chester Jones, an account published in January, 1929, as one of the numbers of the *Recueil des travaux de la Faculté des lettres de l'Université de Neuchâtel.* This contains a bibliography of the articles and books published both before and after his arrival in America in 1848. The best English account of Guyot's life and scientific contributions is the *Memoir of Arnold Guyot* (1884), by James D. Dana.

L. C. J.

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WILLIAM NICHOLAS HAILMANN

Eminent Educator and Pioneer of the Kindergarten in America

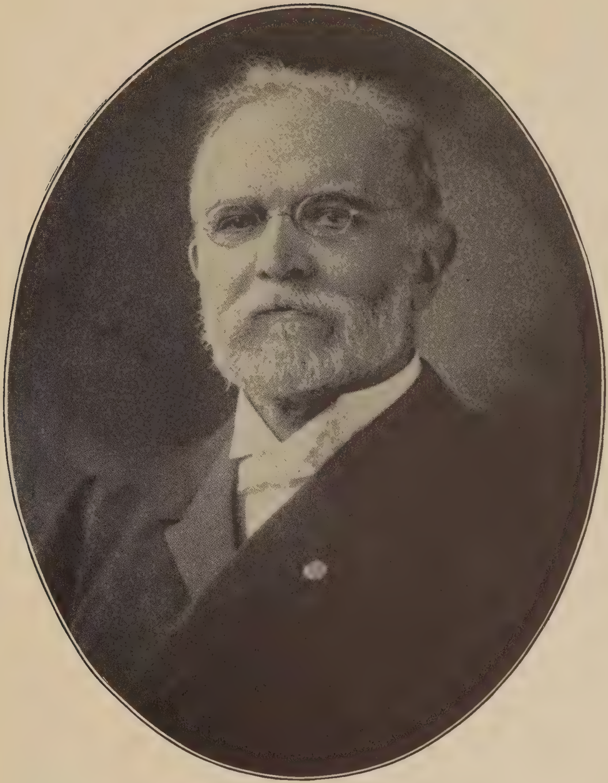
Born October 20, 1836, in Glarus, Switzerland.
Died May 13, 1920, in Pasadena, California.

IN its broader and general meaning the subject of this sketch easily stands out as the foremost educator of Swiss birth in the United States. Indeed, his career in that particular field of cultural endeavor is unique and unusually varied.

Professor Hailmann possessed all those aptitudes and natural requisites of the born educator which make for success: the scientific and didactic mind; patience; perseverance; love of knowledge, wisdom and truth; love of children; an unfaltering belief in the upward trend (evolution) of mankind through education; readiness to try new pedagogical methods and principles, as they were gradually evolved in the new education by such master minds as Pestalozzi, Froebel, Horace Mann, and others; the courage to fight and work for progress and to lead the way in applying new and better methods in education. For almost seventy years he was active as a teacher, instructor, and professor, as a superintendent of public schools, as a promoter of the Kindergarten when this was in its infancy, and also as a prolific author on educational subjects.

William Nicholas Hailmann, whose ancestors were of Alsatian extraction, was the only child of William Alexander and Barbara (Weber) Hailmann, and was born in Glarus, where his father was employed as a designer of cotton print fabrics. However, several months after his birth, his parents moved to the little town of Islikon, on the border line of Zürich and Thurgau, where his father accepted a more lucrative position in a similar establishment.

Having herself been brought up under the educational influence of the Pestalozzian ideas, his mother was determined to apply those principles in the education of her son. As a mere child of three and four years she took him for walks in the woods



WILLIAM N. HAILMANN

and dales, and the haunts of nature, and awakened in his child mind an interest in natural objects, and explained to him their qualities and characteristics. This ''Anschauungs-Unterricht'' of Pestalozzi took root in the boy and, when at the age of six years, he was mustered into the village school, he found there an ''old-line school master'' who educated more with the rod, instead of with love and understanding. William soon rebelled, and his parents turned him over to the private tutor Himmel, in the City of Frauenfeld. Himmel was all that one could wish for in a school teacher; his methods were ideal.

Two years later, however, Himmel received a more promising offer from Buehler, a town in the neighboring Canton of Appenzell, and four of his pupils, including young Hailmann, went with him. Himmel's system provided for daily excursions into the hills and woods with natural object-teaching—the intuitive method. Every fresh knowledge led to a new venture: initiative, manual, experimental, artistic, dramatic, etc. ''At every point,'' writes Hailmann in his autobiographical notes, ''we felt that we amounted to something worthy of respect.''

At the age of thirteen, he was prepared to enter the technical department of the college at Zürich, a bright and well-advanced student. Here he remained for three years, receiving private tutoring in addition to his college course. He studied the natural sciences and languages, and was instructed in technical subjects.

In 1852, at the age of sixteen, with the education of a man ten years older, he came to America, and soon found a position as teacher of modern languages, first in Henry College, and later in the high school at Louisville, Kentucky. He soon realized that his tastes and inclinations were distinctly scientific, and this led him into the department of natural sciences at the same school where, but for a short interruption during the Civil war, he taught for seven years, from 1857 to 1864.

Hailmann soon perceived the shortcomings of the prevailing system of education and became convinced that radical changes in teaching methods were necessary. It dawned upon him that the beginning years, as in his own case, were those of super-importance. During his investigations, he collected data with which to formulate a philosophy of education. Through lectures, and writings in papers and magazines, he tried to awaken an interest in his ideas, and for his efforts received the commendation and co-operation of educators in various parts of the country. In 1860, at the age of twenty-four, he visited his home in

Zürich, and while in this center of advanced education in Switzerland, he made a thorough investigation of the schools of all grades. His first interest in the Kindergarten system was engendered at this time, for Zürich already had established these preparation schools for the little tots. Hailmann immediately responded to the inspiration of the Froebel message, which he had found in practical operation in Zürich.

On his return to America, however, the Civil war interrupted his work for a time. In 1857, at the age of twenty-one, he had married Eudora Lucas, who became his helpmate in Kindergarten activities for thirty years. During 1855-56 Hailmann had taken a course in the Medical College of Louisville, Kentucky, and later received the honorary A.M.

Toward the end of his teaching career at Louisville, an incident occurred which illustrates a typically Swiss trait in Hailmann's character, and he never swerved from the principle involved during all the long years of his varied career as a teacher and educator. Dissatisfaction had arisen among the high school teachers because of the low salaries. They petitioned for an increase, solemnly promising each other to resign were the request refused. And it was refused; and Hailmann was the only member of the group who resigned!

The result of that incident led him into the field of education for which he was peculiarly fitted. Large German immigration had caused the founding of German-English schools in many of the larger cities where the German element had become considerable; even academies were organized. These schools were on a par with the excellent schools of the fatherland. Hailmann now became director of the German-English Academy of Louisville, Kentucky. Here he introduced a feature of relationship between parent and teacher that only in latter years has been copied by the public schools: the Parent-Teacher Association.

During his eight years as head of this private school (1865-73), Hailmann introduced Kindergarten features, and in this was ably assisted by his wife, who, in 1866 and again in 1871, went abroad to study the Kindergarten system of Froebel in Germany and Switzerland. Subsequently, her enthusiasm and practical knowledge enabled her to become a recognized leader in the Kindergarten field in America.

In 1872, at the convention of the National Education Association held in Boston, Hailmann presented a paper on *Adaptation of Froebel's Method to American Institutions.* It created a great interest among the delegates present and led to further investigations of the Kindergarten system by American educators.

Dr. Hailmann was called to Milwaukee, Wisconsin, in 1873 as head of the German-English Academy. Here, he not only worked for the introduction of the Kindergarten into the public schools, but actually established in connection with the institution a training school for Kindergarten teachers. When he left Milwaukee in 1879 to accept a similar position in Detroit, Michigan, Superintendent McAllister of the public schools of Milwaukee gave him a testimonial of praise as a teacher and educator.

In Detroit, he remained as head of the German-American Seminary for four years. Here again, he maintained his system of Kindergarten instruction, and Mrs. Hailmann opened the first English-speaking Kindergarten classes in the city; others soon followed with the support of the Free Kindergarten Association. During the early eighties, the public schools of the Middle West had been materially improved and, consequently, interest in the superior German-English schools began to flag. Hailmann saw a chance to apply his knowledge and experience as an up-to-date educator, and, in 1883, accepted the position of superintendent of the public schools of La Porte, Indiana. For eleven years, Dr. Hailmann, who in 1885 had taken a postgraduate course at the Ohio State University at Columbus and won the degree of Ph.D., put his whole strength and knowledge into the supervision and administration of the schools of La Porte, which soon attained a nation-wide reputation for progressive reforms and model innovations, with many educators from all parts of the country coming to the city to study the system.

Dr. Hailmann established Kindergartens in the public schools; manual training was introduced into the elementary and high schools, while art work was developed along more rational lines. Here again, Mrs. Hailmann established a training school for Kindergarten teachers (1885-94). Together, they also established a summer school for the instruction of teachers in Kindergarten methods.

In 1894, Dr. Hailmann was appointed superintendent of the Government Indian schools at Washington, where he remained four years. Under his management he also created the Kindergarten for the Indian children, more than forty of which were established and in operation when he was forced to resign in 1897 on account of a nervous breakdown of his wife, who died in 1905. From 1898 to 1903, Dr. Hailmann was superintendent of instruction of the public schools of Dayton, Ohio. Later, one of the Dayton high school principals paid him the following tribute upon his departure from Dayton to become head of the department of psychology of the Chicago Normal Training School in 1904:

> I count my years of association with Dr. Hailmann as the great gift given me by the giver of all good gifts. His devotion to all the children and unwavering belief in them; his consciousness of the power of good; his grasp of spiritual law; his patience and self-effacement; his beautiful professional spirit; his devoted, joyous adherence to the ideal: all impressed and stimulated me. Dr. Hailmann was often spoken of as an idealist. However, his grasp of practical details, his knowledge of how to express the ideal in terms of reality, have impressed our schools to this day.

From Chicago he went to Cleveland to become head of the department of education of the Normal Training School. In 1907, he married Helen Kuhn of Detroit, but, after some years, her health became impaired and in 1915, on the advice of her physician, Dr. Hailmann gave up his position and they moved to Pasadena, California. Here, in his 80th year, he accepted a position as instructor in the Broadoaks Kindergarten Manual Training School, which was then a private institution, but which has since been incorporated as the School of Education of Whittier College, in Whittier, a suburb of Los Angeles. He finished his career as a teacher in the cause for which he had been active for upward of fifty years: the Kindergarten. He worked to the end, fully possessed of all his faculties, and passed away on May 13, 1920. His remains are interred in Mountain View Cemetery, Pasadena, California.

Former United States Commissioner of Education, Dr. P. P. Claxton, paid him the following tribute of respect:

> As an author and translator of valuable works on education, as a teacher, and as an educational administrator, he made a distinct impression on the educational thought and practice of his day, and contributed much of permanent value. Energetic, idealistic, hopeful, sweet-spirited, it was a privilege to come in contact with him and rare good fortune to have his friendship.

He was the father of four children, two of whom preceded him in death. He is survived by a son, Wm. Alexander, named after his grandfather, who lives in Seattle, Washington; and a daughter, Elizabeth E. Hailmann, of Los Angeles, a music teacher and arranger of music. His second wife died June 25, 1931, after suffering a broken hip.

Before her death, Mrs. Hailmann donated her husband's voluminous library on educational and Kindergarten subjects, together with many additional rare and valuable volumes, to the University of California (Southern branch), in Los Angeles, and which now is known as the William N. Hailmann Memorial Library. He was the author of many educational volumes, the most noteworthy and valuable of which are: *Outline of a System of Object Teaching* (1866); *History of Pedagogy* (1870) *Kindergarten Culture* (1872); *Letters to a Mother* (1876); *Early Education* (1878); *The Law of Childhood* (1878); *Primary Helps* (1884); *Primary Methods* (1887); *Application of Psychology to Teaching* (1887); *Froebel's Education of Man*, translated from the German and annotated, and considered a classic of its kind (1890); *Constructive Form Work* (1901); *The English Language* (1902); *The Laurel Primer* (1903).

From 1870 to 1883 (during his German-English Academy career) he was editor of the *Erziehungsblätter,* an educational magazine published in the German language. During the years 1876-83, he also edited the magazines, *Kindergarten Messenger* and *New Education.* From 1883 to 1894, he was one of the chief contributors to the National Education Association in the interest of the Kindergarten and other features of the new education. Hailmann contributed many articles on educational subjects to the various educational publications of the country, and to the Bureau of Public Education, and especially to the *Kindergarten Magazine* to which for many years he consistently tendered thought-provoking and illuminating contributions on Kindergarten education.

A. R.

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HERMANN KRUESI

Educator

Born at Yverdon, Switzerland, June 24, 1817.
Died at Alameda, California, January 28, 1903.

THE subject of this sketch became directly a factor in the promulgation and development of the Pestalozzian system of popular elementary education in the United States through his association for a quarter of a century with the famous Oswego State Normal and Training School, of which Edward Austin Sheldon was the founder, director and mentor.

Kruesi's father (1775-1844), also named Hermann, and a native of Gais, Canton of Appenzell, settled in Yverdon in 1805, when Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi moved his famous school from Burgdorf to Yverdon. Kruesi enjoyed the love and confidence of Pestalozzi in 1800-16, when through the arbitrary conduct of Pestalozzi's manager, he resigned. Establishing a private school of his own he conducted it successfully for five years in Yverdon when he received a call from his native canton in 1822 to become director of the newly organized college (Kantonsschule) in Trogen, Appenzell.

Thus the first five years of young Kruesi's life was spent in the French-speaking town, after which the family removed to Appenzell, and he was reared and educated under the direct tutelage of his father. His mother Catherine (Egger) Kruesi was born in Netstal, Canton of Glarus, and was considerably younger than his father.

At the age of sixteen Kruesi was sent to Yverdon for a period of six months to receive his religious instruction from Dr. Niederer, and also to learn the French language.

In 1833 the elder Kruesi became head of the newly organized Normal College (later discontinued) in his native town of Gais, and the son, now seventeen years of age, became a teacher at this institute. He had specialized in the languages, geometry and mathematics, and spent three years at the Bunzlau Normal

School and at Dr. Blochmann's famous Institute in Dresden, Germany, as teacher and observer.

In 1846, he accepted a call to a private educational school at Cheam, England, and a year later became a member of the teaching staff of the Home and Colonial Infant and Training Schools in London. In 1853 he accepted a call to the newly founded Normal College in Lancaster, Mass., where Pestalozzian methods were employed. He remained here from 1853 to 1855.

At Cambridge, Mass., he met a number of his compatriots, including the elder Agassiz and Guyot, whose acquaintance grew into intimate friendship.

In 1856 he married one of his pupils at the Lancaster school, Miss Caroline Dunham, of Minot, Maine. She had been early orphaned, and proved to be an ideal mate for life, later assisting as a teacher in Oswego. During the years 1854-60, Kruesi was a lecturer at the Massachusetts and New Hampshire Institutes, and spent the winter of 1855-56 lecturing at Providence.

The years 1857-59 were spent in Trenton, New Jersey, and the winter of 1859-60 as teacher and lecturer in Salem, Mass. While residing in Lancaster, he received a call to join the teaching staff of the Oswego, N. Y., high school. The superintendent of education in Oswego, Edward Austin Sheldon, became head of the State Normal School and made Kruesi professor of the Philosophy of Education and teacher of modern languages, mathematics and geometry. He remained at the Normal School a quarter of a century, retiring in 1887 honored and respected by a large number of colleagues and friends.

Sheldon saw the merits of the Pestalozzian system, or object teaching, and adopted it enthusiastically, first for the public schools of Oswego, and later for the Normal College. He found in Kruesi a splendid collaborator in executing his plans; and he acknowledged his usefulness and services in bringing the famous Normal College at Oswego to a high standard of efficiency. Kruesi's influence as a teacher at the Normal School was second only to that of Sheldon, its head. Sheldon said of him: ''He had a very clear insight into educational principles, knew how to analyze a subject into its simplest elements, and present it in a clear, logical way. His assistance in interpreting the application of principles to other branches than his own, was invaluable.''

Professor Kruesi was the author of ''The Life and Work of Pestalozzi,'' and ''Kruesi's Drawing Course,'' as well as a number of essays and dissertations on educational and literary subjects.

He had three children, a son Hermann, who became a successful civil engineer in California, and two daughters who died in childhood. After his retirement in 1887 he lived with his son and died in his 85th year, January, 1903.

His autobiography, which after his death was edited by Elizabeth Sheldon Alling, a daughter of Prof. Sheldon, reveals a fine and noble character, one of those men whom Emerson characterized as of the stamp of ''Plain Living and High Thinking.''

A. R.

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SAMUEL STEHMAN HALDEMAN

Naturalist, Scientist, and Scholar

Born August 12, 1812, at Locust Grove, Pennsylvania.
Died September 10, 1880, at Chickies, Lancaster County, Pennsylvania.

ATHOUGH born an American of Swiss extraction in the fourth generation, the subject of this sketch may well be included in this volume of noted Americans of Swiss origin, inasmuch as he was descended from an ancient Swiss family of Canton Berne, whose original abode was in the neighborhood of the Lake of Thun. According to Swiss genealogies of the family prior to the fifteenth century, the line is traced to the neighborhood of Winterthur.

It appears that in the seventeenth century one branch of the family settled near Neuchâtel, Switzerland, and there the name was changed to Haldimand, conforming to the French. It also is related that in 1671 one Gaspard (von Horben) Haldiman, commonly known as ''Honnete Gaspard,'' thus removed to the French-speaking section of Canton Berne, near Neuchâtel. He had several sons, and they in turn had a large progeny, so that the family in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries had several branches in Yverdon, Switzerland, in Turin, Italy, in London, and in the United States.

Here it may be stated that Sir Frederick Haldimand, who fought under the British flag as an officer in Canada during Colonial times and subsequently became the first Governor-General of Canada, was a grand uncle of Samuel Stehman Haldeman. The members of the family that first settled in Lancaster County, Pennsylvania, together with John B. Haldeman, who during the time of the Revolutionary War became an ardent American patriot, are the direct ancestors of Samuel S. Haldeman. John B. Haldeman was the grandfather of the subject, and a cousin of Sir Frederick Haldimand; therefore, Samuel S. was a grandnephew of the first Governor-General of Canada.

Samuel S. Haldeman was the first-born of seven sons of Henry and Frances (Stehman) Haldeman; the father was a farmer and citizen of Lancaster county. Early in youth, Samuel evinced a liking for the study of natural history. The home of his family was well supplied with good books, globes, etc., which afforded the boy a liberal means for indoor study. He attended the local schools until he was thirteen years old. As little was required of him after school hours, his leisure time was spent in the workshops on his father's estate, in shooting, fishing, boating, trapping, riding, and swimming. Thus the boy became physically rugged. At the same time, it developed in him habits of observation of nature, which he afterwards applied in the study of the sciences. Scott's *Map of Lancaster County* (1824) had a great attraction for him and taught him the local geography.

As a boy we find him roaming around for hours in the wilds of the Susquehanna river, hunting shells, collecting plants and flowers, insects and birds, and traversing the shores of the river looking for minerals, Indian arrow-heads and stone axes. He founded a little museum in the loft of his father's carriage house, where among other things, he collected rude anatomical preparations, made from rabbits, possums, muskrats, and other animals. A traveling Methodist preacher taught him how to stuff birds. On an island, a mile away from his father's house, an eagle's nest was visible upon a large buttonwood tree and it was easy for him to observe the eagles chasing and robbing the fish-hawks. From observation Samuel ascertained that when the eagle could not thus secure fish he would dive for them himself, a fact first recorded by Haldeman, who also was the first to note that the peregrine falcon nests in the rocks, as in Europe, and not in trees, as Wilson and others had supposed. He had himself procured young ones from a nest in the cliffs.

After leaving the grammar school at the age of fourteen, he was sent to a classical school at Harrisburg, Pennsylvania; and two years later, he entered Dickinson College at Carlisle, in his home state. Here he remained only two years, when he tired of college life, satisfied that he could educate himself better at home in the various subjects that especially interested him.

At Carlisle, however, he learned much from one instructor in the field of geology: Henry Darwin Rogers. So he returned to his scientific books and his shells and insects. While his parents approved of his course and encouraged him in his scientific studies, he had to overcome the prejudice of the community, where most of the people disliked a man with an unpractical mind and where science and culture were considered unnecessary accomplishments.

Thus, to allay public criticism on this score, he was given the management of a sawmill, and for five years earned his livelihood at a practical occupation. In his spare hours, however, he gave his attention to his books and scientific studies. During this period, he also made a special study of vocal sounds, or the science of phonology. It gradually became known that Haldeman was endowed with perhaps the most sensitive and acute ear on record. He was able to detect the sounds made by the smallest of insects.

In 1836, Henry Darwin Rogers, his former teacher at Carlisle, who for a number of years had been the State Geologist of New Jersey, was given the same position in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, but wished first to finish his labors in New Jersey. He called upon Haldeman to help him in this work. Thus, for one year he aided Rogers in the field operations in New Jersey, after which he was transferred to Pennsylvania. His first work in his home state was the sectional study of the Susquehanna river, but later his geological observations and investigations were extended to Dauphin and Lancaster counties. While he was an entitled assistant of Rogers for only one year, he continued his connection for several years, during which time he issued several reports.

During the next 42 years, apart from several journeys to Europe for scientific purposes, he rarely left his study. For practical purposes, however, he became and was a silent partner in the iron works which two of his brothers had established. As such, he also made some experiments with anthracite coal for smelting purposes, and, in 1839, published a paper on the results of his experiments; and another on the construction of furnaces for smelting with anthracite.

> In his memoir of Haldeman, J. P. Leslie says:
>
> Geology was not his first love. His observations of the living forms of nature had revealed to him a world of sounds which made all nature vocal, speaking to his ear and to his imagination in distinct articulate language, analogous to that of human creatures. Thus he had early entered the halls of the science of philology by quite a different door from that in common use. . . . He was inspired to investigate the pronunciation of the elements and the syllabic combinations of languages as they actually reproduced themselves millions of times every hour on the lips of tribes and nations of savage and civilized peoples.

He was exact and thorough in all departments of science. He became eminent as an entomologist; but philology was the passion of his life. For instance, whenever an Indian delegation visited Washington he went there to take notes of the articulate sounds which the red men uttered in conversation, and at one time he thought of applying for an Indian agency so as to be able to further his knowledge on this particular science.

He made a number of trips to Europe to prosecute his studies in phonology, and spent considerable time in Rome, where special favors were accorded him by the Regency of the Propaganda, and here, by systematic conversations with students, he exhausted the vocal repertoire of between forty and fifty varieties of human speech. While in Rome he was converted to Catholicism.

In 1858, in competition with eighteen noted scholars from Europe, he won the Trevelyan Prize in London for his essay: *Analytic Orthography,* published in 1860. He was an advocate of spelling reform; and the author of manuals on orthography, orthoepy and etymology. He contributed articles to the *Southern Review* on ''American Literature,'' ''School Readers,'' ''Northern Geographies,'' and ''American Dictionaries.''

In 1842-43, he lectured on geology at the Franklin Institute in Philadelphia. In 1851-55, he was professor of natural science in Delaware College, Newark, Delaware, and subsequently lectured there on comparative philosophy. At the same time, he filled the chair of geology and chemistry in the State Agricultural College of Pennsylvania.

His contributions to periodical literature numbered more than 200, and related to geology, mineralogy, conchology, archæology, paleontology, astronomy, chemistry, ornithology, philology and phonology.

His larger works include: *Monograph of the Fresh-Water Univalve Mollusca of the United States; Sketch of Natural History and Geology of Lancaster County, Pa.; History of Lancaster County; Elements of Indian Pronunciation; Tours of a Chess Knight,* mathematically treated; *Affixes in Their Origin and Application; Rhymes of the Poets; Pennsylvania Dutch; Outlines of Etymology;* and *Word Building.* He edited the second edition of *Taylor's Statistics of Coal,* in addition to contributing to the *Iconographic Cyclopædia.* In 1851-52, he edited the *Pennsylvania Farmers' Journal.*

Prof. Haldeman was a member of the American Philological Society; one of the early members of the National Academy of Sciences; a member of the Boston Society of Natural History, and the American Philosophical Society.

In 1835, he was married to Mary A. Hugh, of Bainbridge, Pennsylvania, who died in 1883. She bore him six children, four of whom survived their father. He died at his home in Chickies, Lancaster county, Pennsylvania, September 10, 1880.

In Samuel S. Haldeman this renowned American family of Swiss origin has given to the United States an illustrious scholar and scientist, one of the most diversified and accomplished intellects in the scientific world that this continent so far has produced. Says Jean McIlwraith, the biographer of Frederick Haldimand, first Governor-General of Canada:

> The Haldemans of the U. S. have also distinguished themselves in science and literature, proving in their search for truth that they were worthy descendants of Honnete Gaspard, the grandfather of Sir Frederick Haldimand; Professor Samuel Stehman Haldeman exhibited the family thoroughness in research along many lines, from conchology and entomology to philology and archaeology.

Other members of the Haldeman family also became prominent in various ways. Jacob Samuel Haldeman (1827-1889) was in the U. S. diplomatic service and in 1864, served as American minister to Sweden and Norway.

A. R.

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FERDINAND RUDOLPH HASSLER

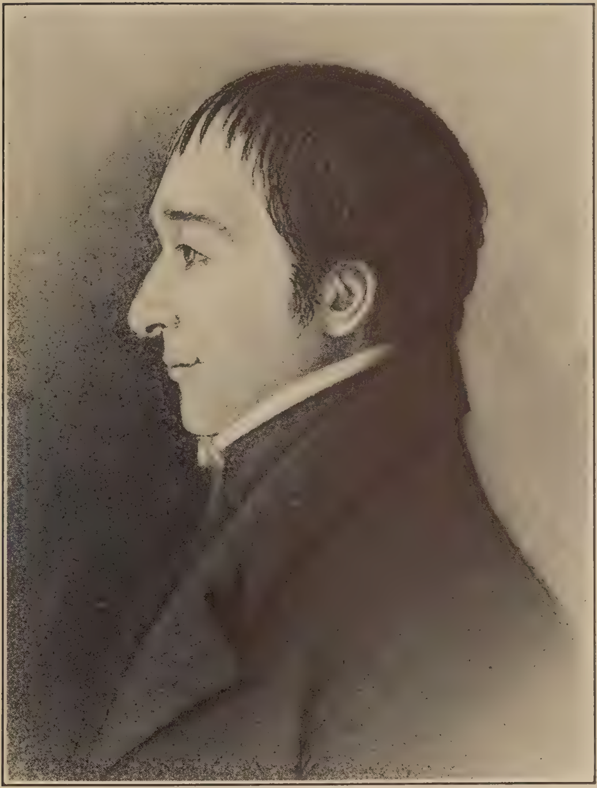
Superintendent of the United States Coast Survey; Astronomer, and Mathematician

Born October 7, 1770, at Aarau, Switzerland.
Died November 20, 1843, in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

FERDINAND RUDOLPH HASSLER'S father was a watchmaker in Aarau and lived in good circumstances. As his son Ferdinand was exceptionally bright and studious, he was given the opportunity to acquire a scientific education. Following his preparatory schooling, he was sent to the university of Berne, where he specialized in the study of mathematics and geometry. After his graduation he became a volunteer in an administration bureau in Berne, which had under its care the landed property, landed revenue, the archives, and all surveys. In this position he was initiated in public affairs. He passed his summers surveying, and his winters in the office and in scientific pursuits at the Political Institute, studying jurisprudence, anthropology, political economy, and mathematics.

In 1794, he went to Jena and Göttingen, Germany, where he studied astronomy and natural philosophy, history, and political economy. In 1796, after a short stay at home, he left for Paris to take up studies in mineralogy and chemistry. He then returned to Berne and resumed his work of surveying, which he had begun in 1791. With the outbreak of the French Revolution, which also affected Switzerland, his position became jeopardized and his future prospects appeared very gloomy.

He held several public offices, was one of the two attorneys-general of the Supreme Court of Switzerland, until the Mediation Act of 1805 gave again to each canton its own jurisdiction. Hassler then accepted a position offered him in the United States and at the age of 35 emigrated to these shores, leaving Switzerland on May 15, 1805, with his wife, children, and servants, arriving in Philadelphia, Pa., in September of that year. It was his intention to organize a Swiss colony, but the scheme was soon abandoned.



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Soon after his arrival, he made the personal acquaintance of his compatriot, Albert Gallatin, secretary of the United States treasury, and through him sought an interview with President Thomas Jefferson, in which the subject of the coast survey was broached. He recognized how necessary it was for this country to have a coast survey to guard the lives of those whose province it was to follow commercial pursuits and seafaring careers, reduce the ratio of casualties, and also to protect the important interests of the nation in the strategic direction.

At that time the only charts available for our mariners were those in *The Atlantic Neptune* of Colonel Des Barres, and the old hydrographic charts issued by the Dutch, French, and English governments, so that American seamen were really less familiar with many sections of their own coast than were the European navigators. President Jefferson appreciated fully the necessity of accurate charts and so he recommended the survey of the home coast.

In his annual message to Congress, in the year 1807, President Jefferson proposed the establishment of a national survey and in response to this recommendation, Congress made an appropriation of $50,000 for the purpose. By the direction of the President, Albert Gallatin, secretary of the treasury, addressed a circular-letter to thirteen American men of science requesting them to submit plans. The plans thus received were examined by a Commission, and the project finally selected was the one submitted by Ferdinand Rudolph Hassler, at that time, and for several years following, professor of mathematics and natural philosophy at the West Point Military Academy. From 1809 to 1811, he filled a similar position at Union College.

The execution of the program, however, was not begun until 1811, when Hassler was ordered to undertake a trip to Europe for the purpose of procuring the necessary instruments. While he was abroad, the War of 1812 took place, in consequence of which, Hassler was interned in London as an alien until 1815, when he was permitted to return to the United States. By that time he had exceeded the limits of his Federal appropriation, and, as a result, the project suffered further delays, but finally was resumed in 1817, when the contract authorizing Hassler to proceed with his work received official approval.

In 1817, a beginning was made in the bay and harbor of New York, but Congress failed to provide for its continuance, and work again was suspended. Congress then repealed the law under which Hassler had been appointed, and stipulated that no one should be employed in the survey except officers of the United States army and navy. This was equal to a cancellation of the project, since there was no one in America but Hassler, who possessed the necessary qualification for its direction.

Hassler then was appointed one of the experts to represent the United States in the settlement of the Canadian boundary. In the meantime (1819-32), various attempts were made by the navy department to survey sections of the coast. A few detached surveys were perfected, but no general systematic work was accomplished, and the result was by no means a creditable one. During these years, he had devoted himself to literary work, and was the author of: *Elements of Geometry; Elements of Planes and Solids; Elements of Analytical Trigonometry; Arithmetic; Astronomy; Logarithms; Trigonometric Tables;* and *Papers on Various Subjects Connected with the Survey of the Coast of the United States.* In 1824, appeared his *Pyrometrical Experiments,* which forms the basis of all our standards of weights and measures. At his suggestion, two astronomical observatories were established, one in Washington, D. C., and the other at New Orleans, La., for purposes of the survey and to serve the general objects of astronomy.

In June, 1831, Congress passed an act for the construction of standards of weights and measures, and at the same time, adopted a resolution placing the work into the able hands of Hassler. A set of Hassler's weights, measures, and balances were also sent to England to replace those which were destroyed by the conflagration of the Houses of Parliament.

In 1832, Congress passed an act reorganizing the surveys to conform with Hassler's original plan, and again Hassler was appointed to the superintendency of the coast survey. The reappointment was in logical sequence to Hassler's manifestation of his unique capabilities, exhibited in his *Memoirs* on the subject of the survey.

His study was received with such favor by competent authorities both here and abroad, that the commendation bestowed upon it awakened the sentiments of national pride, and thereby influenced the congress in its authorization of the renewal of the survey in 1832. Under Hassler's able direction the triangulations were extended as far north as Rhode Island, and south to the head of Chesapeake bay. The topography had kept pace with the triangulation, and the hydrography of New York bay, of

Long Island, of Delaware bay and river, etc., covering an area of 9,000 square miles, furnishing determinations of nearly 12,000 stations for the delineation of 1,600 miles of shore line.

Simultaneously, Hassler continued his literary productions, and besides his annual reports on the coast survey, and as superintendent of the establishment of standard weights and measures, he wrote *System of the Universe* (two volumes).

Hassler was at the head of his great task and in harness for the United States until death closed his great career in 1843. To what degree of esteem the services of Hassler were held in his adopted country, may be seen from the first report of his successor, Dallas Bache, which reads in part:

> The Coast Survey owes its present form and perhaps its existence to the zeal and scientific activity of the late Superintendent (Hassler), who devoted the energy of his life to it. . . . The difficult task of creating resources of practical science for carrying on such work upon a suitable scale, required no common zeal and perseverance for its accomplishment, especially at a time when our country was far from having attained its present position of scientific acquirement, and when public opinion was hardly sufficiently enlightened to see the full advantage of clearness in executing the work. For his successful struggle against great difficulties his adopted country will do honor to his memory as pioneer of a useful national undertaking.

A. BA.

Sources of Information:

Memoirs of Ferdinand Rudolph Hassler, by F. R. Hassler, Jr.
Memoirs of Ferdinand Rudolph Hassler, by Emil Zschokke, Aarau, Switzerland.
Papers of the American Historical Association, vol. iv, April, 1890, Part 2, "The Origin of the National Scientific and Educational Institutions of the United States," by Dr. G. Brown Goode.

FRIDOLIN JOSEPH HEER

Builder and Architect

Born July 30, 1834, at Wallenstadt, Canton of St. Gall, Switzerland.
Died September 19, 1910, at Dubuque, Iowa.

FRIDOLIN JOSEPH HEER was born in Wallenstadt, Canton of St. Gall, Switzerland, July 30, 1834. His father was a builder, and the building inspector in his native town.

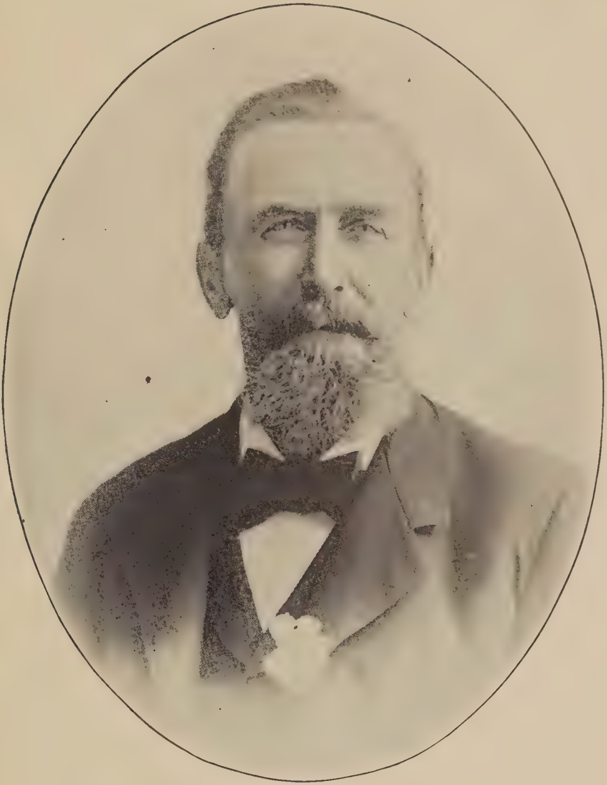
After leaving school, Fridolin was apprenticed to a master stone-cutter and builder in Rapperswil, situated on Lake Zürich. In the course of time, he thoroughly learned the art of stone-cutting and building, and rose to the position of foreman, after which his tutor and employer entrusted him with the construction and supervision of important buildings in Switzerland.

Heer served his time in the Swiss militia, where he advanced to the rank of sergeant, after which he worked as a journeyman stone-cutter in many places in Germany, terminating with a two-year course in the architectural schools of Holzminden and Munich, Germany; in the former under Professor Meyer, and in the latter with the renowned sculptor, Professor Joseph Riedmueller.

Thus equipped, Fridolin Joseph Heer established himself as a ''master stone-cutter'' in the City of Chur, Switzerland, in 1860, and soon developed a well-established business. It was here that his mind and hand planned and erected the monumental fountain in front of the Cathedral, for Pater Theodosius, a renowned Swiss ecclesiastic, which fountain was given special mention by the Society of Sculptural Art in Munich as a fine specimen of that particular kind of architectural art.

On April 26, 1860, Heer married Miss Lisette Breitler, of Basadingen, Canton of Thurgau. Four children blessed their union; one infant son, however, died in Chur.

After five years of prosperous and successful labors, unexpected financial reverses, caused by the sudden death of his friend, Pater Theodosius, overcame him, and he decided to leave his home and country and emigrate to the United States. He arrived in July, 1865. His destination was Belleville, Illinois,



FRIDOLIN J. HEER

where he had relatives. After six months he sent for his family. The climate of Belleville, however, did not prove favorable to Mrs. Heer's health; hence they settled in Chicago, where they resided two years, when Heer heard glowing accounts of the prospects in the growing western town of Dubuque, on the Mississippi. In 1868, he removed, with his family, to Dubuque, Iowa, which thenceforth was their home and the center of Mr. Heer's activity as a master stone-cutter, builder and architect.

The first two years of Fridolin Heer's labors in Dubuque were given to stone-cutting, mainly monuments, after which he made architecture his main line of work to the end of his life. His work and the buildings which he and the firm he organized (Fridolin Heer and Son) designed and erected in Dubuque and the neighboring States of Wisconsin and Illinois, are outstanding proofs of his ability and skill, and attest the durability and substantiality of their construction.

The first buildings planned and erected by him were the James Levi Store, Town Clock Building, Globe Building, John V. Rider Store Building, and the Jacob Michel Store Building; followed by many residences for prominent citizens of Dubuque. Other prominent structures are the Eagle Building, County Poor House; first building of Clark College; St. Francis Convent and St. Mary's Orphans' Home, all in Dubuque; the Public School structure in Dyersville, Iowa; Catholic Churches at Luxemburg, Fort Dodge, and Westphalia; and the Feebleminded Institution in Glenwood, all in Iowa, together with other buildings too numerous to mention.

Upon the return of his son, Fridolin Joseph, Jr., in June, 1886, from the school of architecture in Stuttgart, Germany, father and son associated themselves into the firm of Frid. Heer & Son, which has since planned the following prominent buildings:

Dubuque County Court House; the Jackson, Irving, Fulton and Morse Public School buildings; addition to St. Joseph's Academy; superintended the large complex of buildings for the Dubuque Brewing & Malting Company; made plans and superintended the large factory plant of the Brunswick-Balke-Collender Company, in Dubuque.

Among the store and office buildings erected by the firm are: the First Security Building; M. M. Hoffman Building; and the John Olinger buildings. In addition to various churches, they erected the Sacred Heart Catholic Church and Parochial School, and the German Presbyterian Church, all in the city of Dubuque.

Church edifices erected in other communities are: St. Francis Catholic Church, Dyersville, Iowa; Sacred Heart Church, Fort Madison, Iowa; Sacred Heart Church, Pomeroy, Ohio; St. Anthony's, Milwaukee, Wisconsin; Catholic Churches at Oregon and Savanna, Illinois; at North Washington and New Hampton, Iowa; Lutheran Church at New Hampton, Iowa; St. Felix Catholic Church, School, and Orphans' Home at Wabasha, Minnesota.

Altogether, the firm built more than one hundred churches in the States of Iowa, Wisconsin, and Illinois.

They also built since 1886, the first addition to Sacred Heart College, Prairie du Chien, Wisconsin; and various buildings for St. Mary's Academy and College, Prairie du Chien, Wisconsin. The large addition to the latter, erected during 1908-1910, together with the Marquette Monument and the Shrine of Lourdes on the Academy grounds, terminated the life work of Fridolin Joseph Heer, Sr.

The most noteworthy monuments of his architectural work are the Dubuque County Court House, in the Renaissance style, the plan and design of which received the unanimous approval of the supervising board; and the Sacred Heart Church in Fort Madison, Iowa, built in the Roman style. This latter edifice has received unstinted praise for its harmony, fine proportion and symmetry, as well as for its spacious well-balanced interior and general classic beauty.

The Dubuque County Tuberculosis Hospital designed by Mr. Heer, also was pronounced by experts as a splendid model building for its purpose, one of the most ideally equipped institutions of its kind in the world.

Fridolin Joseph Heer was a charter member of the Iowa Chapter of the American Institute of Architects, joining the Western Association in 1886, and becoming an Institute member at its consolidation in 1889. He was a licensed architect in the States of Illinois, Wisconsin, and Iowa.

For his work in erecting the Marquette Monument he was the recipient of the following words of appreciation:

> To Mr. Frid. Heer, Sr., the architect of the monument, the sturdy, old Swiss patriot, the American so true to his adopted country, the indefatigable worker in this cause so dear to his heart; to him, indeed, we owe a word of appreciation and tribute of praise; may his work and his success be an example and an inspiration to the younger generation of American citizens.

Fridolin Joseph Heer was the soul of good-heartedness, liberal-minded, generous and charitable in his make-up, and, withal, unselfish and public-spirited. While he was a faithful adherent of the Catholic faith, he also was a member of various civic organizations, being the founder of the Swiss Helvetia Male Chorus; a member of the Dubuque Rifle Club (Schützen-Gesellschaft), the Veteran Firemen, the Old Settlers' Association, and the Dubuque Saengerbund (Singing Society). Mr. Heer always cherished the memory of his native land, but was equally proud of the country of his adoption and his accomplishments here, as well as his attainments in the land of his birth.

The noble spirit and ardent patriotic heart of Fridolin Heer are brought out in fine relief by the following incident: When he came to America, in July, 1865, and was on his way to Belleville, Illinois, he had a two-hour stop-over in Springfield, the capital of Illinois. Upon learning this he was quick to look up Lincoln's grave and placed thereon a cluster of Edelweiss and Alpine roses, the National flowers of Switzerland. A few days thereafter the Springfield paper made mention of this unusual tribute to the martyred president by an immigrant, by stating that a young Swiss immigrant had "paid his respects to our beloved president by placing on his grave a cluster of Edelweiss and Alpine roses."

It goes without saying that in all American and Swiss patriotic celebrations held by the large Swiss colony of Dubuque and vicinity, Fridolin Heer was one of the leading spirits. He was fond of music and song, and believed that festivities and celebrations constituted an integral part of the social and patriotic life of a democratic and free people.

He died of pneumonia September 19th, 1910, and is survived by his son, Fridolin Joseph Heer, still head of the firm established by his father, and two daughters, Elise M., and Pauline M. Heer. His wife preceded him in death by several years.

A. R.

Sources of Information:

History of Dubuque County, Iowa (1910).
Data furnished the writer by Fridolin Heer, Jr., Dubuque, Iowa.

JULIUS HURTER

Herpetologist

Born July 2, 1842, in Schaffhausen, Switzerland.
Died November, 1917, in St. Louis, Missouri.

THE subject of this biographical sketch was a descendant of an old and well-established family of Schaffhausen, capital of the northernmost Canton of Switzerland. His ancestral home was known as the ''White House.'' He received careful schooling, and was a graduate of the city college, known as the ''Gymnasium.'' After his graduation, he entered upon a career of mechanical engineering with the firm of Rauschenbach Brothers, well-known manufacturers of agricultural machinery and implements in Schaffhausen. Later, he held that position with the firm of Bell & Co., in Kriens, Canton of Lucerne.

Toward the end of the sixties of the last century, he emigrated to the United States, where he first found employment in St. Paul, Minnesota, later removing to St. Louis, Missouri, which thereafter became his permanent home. Here he was engaged as mechanical engineer with the Fulton Iron Works. For many years he employed his evenings as a teacher of mechanical drawing in the special night schools of that city, and in this capacity proved himself a very efficient instructor.

Hurter, however, had a strong bent for the natural sciences. He was fond of the haunts of nature. In his leisure hours and on Sundays, he took jaunts into the woods to study nature and the animal world. As a result of his exploration trips into the hills and dales in search for bugs, butterflies, and rare birds, he managed to gather valuable collections of rare specimens of birds and insects. In time, he developed into an expert amateur taxidermist.

He not only acquired a marked ability for stuffing and mounting his pets, but also knew how to classify them correctly. His remarkable collections attracted wide attention, and ultimately passed into the possession of the Washington University of St. Louis. Later, he directed his research work to reptiles and specialized in them. His exploration trips became more and more extensive, until his hobby assumed a professional character. His services as a collector of reptiles now were sought by various institutions, in whose behalf he undertook research expeditions into the states of Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas, even extending his activities to Central America. Hurter was an enthusiastic worker and most painstaking in all of his investigations.

As an expert in these special fields of natural sciences, Julius Hurter became firmly established as an authority, and as such was generally recognized in the scientific world, and his reputation as a herpetologist was world-wide.

His literary work on this subject: *Herpetology of Missouri* (1911), which was published by the St. Louis Academy of Science, is considered the most elaborate textbook of its kind, and is used in many of the higher institutions of learning. Some years later, a second and enlarged edition was published.

Hurter not only possessed an unusual knowledge of serpents, but, moreover, was a keen and minute observer of their daily habits. His scientific revelations on that score aroused great interest in scientific circles, as well as in the ranks of the laymen. At the time of his death, he bequeathed a considerable collection, comprised of many rare varieties of serpent specimens, to the Smithsonian Institution at Washington, D. C.

A man of unusual mental alertness, he was modest and reserved. He was small of stature, and amongst friends a good conversationalist, and at all times possessed of cheerful disposition. His friends never tired of listening to his experiences and adventures of his many trips into the haunts and wilds of the bird and snake world in their natural habitats.

Socially, he was a member of several Swiss societies of St. Louis, but had little time to attend social functions. He was somewhat of a gymnastics enthusiast, and for many years a liberal supporter of the Swiss Turnverein of St. Louis.

B. B.

Source of Information:

Observations of Bruno Buchmann, who was personally acquainted with Hurter, augmented by additional data from his nephew, A. Schachenmann, of Chicago, Illinois.

JOHN HEINRICH KRUESI

Technical Expert and Inventor

Born May 15, 1843, at Heiden, Canton of Appenzell, Switzerland. Died February 22, 1899, in Schenectady, New York.

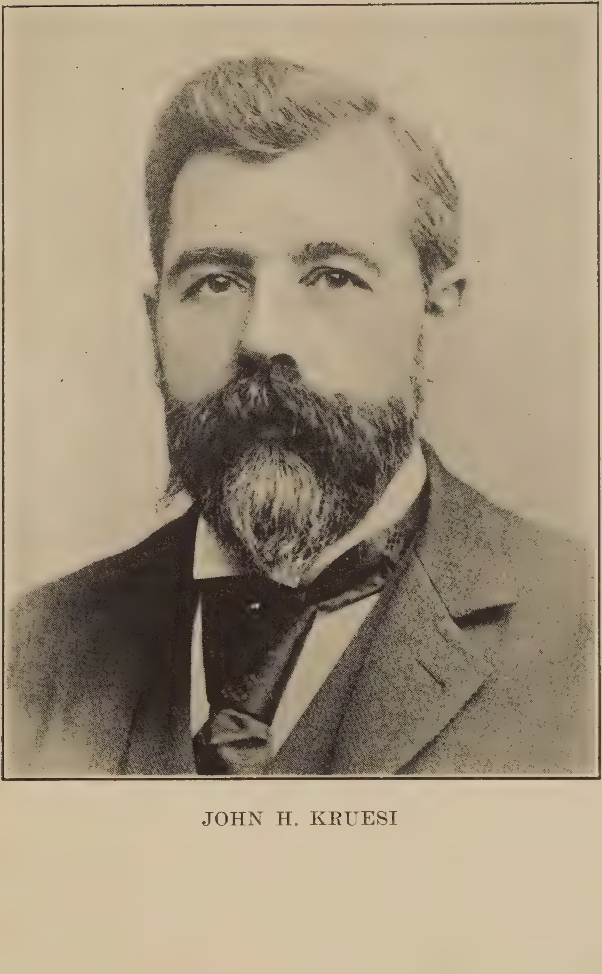
IT is, perhaps, largely due to the perception and unusual perspicacity of the ''Wizard of Menlo Park,'' Thomas A. Edison, that the subject of this sketch attained the prominence, as an immigrant from Switzerland, which entitles him to a place of honor in the roster of worthies of Swiss descent in the United States.

To be sure, John Kruesi had unusual native ability along technical lines, and was endowed with an inventive mind, perhaps only second to that of the greater American genius. However, it was Thomas A. Edison who detected the inventive genius of Kruesi, and who had the good sense to know and appreciate his value to him as a wonderful technical executor of plans and ideas that Edison worked out in his laboratory. Kruesi practically was Edison's right hand.

Born in Heiden, he grew up with other children in the orphan asylum at Speicher. These mostly were employed in the basement of the building, called the ''weaving cellar,'' making the famous Swiss embroideries, until old enough to be discharged as capable of taking care of themselves.

The village school was carried on at the orphanage, the resident head of the institution acting as teacher. When the simple lessons in reading, writing and arithmetic, with perhaps a bit of history and geography, were over, the town children went home or to play; the orphans, however, descended to the ''weaving cellar'' to learn of the practical side of life.

Naturally, under such hardships, he disliked the trade he had been taught at the orphanage. Besides, it was not suitable; he had mechanical aptitude; and thus, when he was discharged from the institution, he apprenticed himself to a locksmith by the name of Kessler in St. Fiden, a suburb of the City of St. Gall. When he had learned all that he could from his employer, he



JOHN H. KRUESI

denied himself an opportunity for immediate betterment in a partnership and went to Zürich to work as a journeyman machinist. There he met August Weber, who remained a friend, neighbor, and associate throughout his life.

In 1867, at the time of the great International Exposition at Paris, these two young mechanics journeyed to the French capital, hoping to find a better opportunity of learning more and becoming proficient in their trades. Here they worked in a factory only long enough to acquaint themselves with its processes, methods and equipment, and then tried the next establishment with the same end in view, and to lay by a little money.

The exposition at Paris also offered them a splendid opportunity to see a large assemblage of the latest machines and mechanical devices of that time.

In the meantime, John Kruesi journeyed to Holland and Belgium to gain similar practical experience; and his elder children remember the jovial enthusiasm with which he occasionally spoke of his life there. His working hours were long and hard; he was a stranger and alone; but he worked diligently and lived with the rigorous simplicity with which the Swiss of those days were brought up.

After an absence of three years, John Kruesi returned to Switzerland for a visit with his relatives and friends. He was made much of, but announced his determination to go to America. He first went to London, where he rejoined his friend Weber. They chummed together, spending most of their Sundays and holidays in the South Kensington Museum, studying the mechanical models for principles of designs and transmission of power, and debating and arguing with each other as to the practical value and possible improvement of these machines. They both were ingenious in a mechanical way, and these models excited and educated their ingenuity.

Weber was impatient to get to America, and after learning that the Singer Sewing Machine Company was in need of machinists, he went off forthwith. Kruesi, however, felt that he still had much to learn in England, and remained for a few months longer, until he heard from his friend that the prospect for jobs was good and the wage attractive.

In December, 1870, he arrived in New York and entered the employ of the Singer Company. Here he accomplished so much in improving the action of the machines and in introducing methods of increasing output, that he was offered rapid advancement and considerable inducements to stay. In the meantime, however, he had heard much about a young experimenter, named Edison, in Newark, New Jersey, and the new inventions he was working on, namely: the stock ticker, telegraphic printing press, electric pen, etc. These activities proved more attractive to him, and, in 1871, he joined Edison. Kruesi was more adept in the mechanical execution of ideas, and though he and Edison usually talked together about the physical principles and their mechanical application, the execution generally was Kruesi's part of the work. It was not long before the shop in Newark had outgrown its capacity, and they now moved to Menlo Park, where the phonograph, electric incandescent light, the electric street car, and other revolutionizing inventions were born.

Commerford Martin, the noted engineer, credited Kruesi with the making of the ''first practical dynamo'' and the adhesive insulating tape as it is used today.

The *Patent Office Gazette and Index* lists ten patents taken out by John Kruesi on underground transmission alone between 1880 and 1887.

The most interesting and dramatic chapter of his scientific work under Edison was his making of the first direct sound-recording and reproducing mechanism—the phonograph.

One day, while Edison and Kruesi were working with an electric bell in conjunction with the telephone, Edison conceived the idea that as each sound wave has a characteristic shape and force, a record of it could be made and later, if a needle attached to a diaphragm were run through the recorded shape, it would be actuated accordingly and reproduce a sound. So he made a little sketch with a memorandum: ''Kruesi, make this,'' which still exists. Edison, at a later reading of the foregoing memo, commented as follows:

> I did not know I'd get anything. Your father did not know what the thing (a cylinder with a crank and a diaphragm hanging over it and moving synchronously with a spiral groove on the cylinder) was for. He wanted to know what it was for, so he could work intelligently with the idea. I told him. Then he laughed and said, it was ''a fool idea.'' Kruesi was the main mechanician, a rapid, accurate worker, willing, and he never looked at the clock. He had charge of the men.

A few days later, the mechanism was ready and John Kruesi brought it to Edison. One of them turned the crank, the other recited the whimsical doggerel: ''Mary had a little lamb.'' The reproducing needle was applied at the beginning of the little groove of dots and, the crank being turned once more, gave forth the recorded sounds. It gave Edison the greatest sensation of fame. Kruesi is quoted as exclaiming: ''Mein Gott im Himmel!'' Charles Batchelor, another of the original and continuous Edison associates, and Mr. Kruesi's best friend, said:

> Kruesi was the most indefatigable worker in the crowd. Not only that, but he was also able to make things quickly and often to arrive at the most ingenious principles at the same time.

How John Kruesi's eyes snapped and beamed with proud satisfaction when he told of the first marine electrical installation on the *S. S. Columbia!* After eighteen years it was replaced by a more compact set, and his third son used the generator to test others when it came back to the shop as a museum piece.

Mr. Kruesi was the foreman of the shop. When it became outgrown and more labor was needed than could be had in this little village, it was decided to move to New York to save time and facilitate production. Shops were leased on Gold street, Brooklyn, and on Goerck and Washington streets in Manhattan. The first and third of these plants were used for making the conductors, while the dynamos were made in Goerck street.

The City of New York granted franchises for electric lighting which provided that the wires, which it was feared were dangerous, should be placed underground. Edison said:

> Placing the wires underground instead of on poles like telephone wires was not a requirement of the city; it was my idea. Professor Morton, of the Stevens Institute, said we could not put conductors underground. We did it!

Insulation for wire had been devised, but the wires could not be buried, for the insulation might break down and the current lost while seeking water and gas mains, shocking everyone who touched these at their outlets and ruining them by electrolysis. The clay conduit had not been developed.

Kruesi then came to the rescue with the ''Kruesi tube,'' in which strands of insulated wires, bars or rods with separators were run through iron tubes, and then hot tar compound was pumped in and allowed to harden. These were patented and adopted and still are in use, although new installations are no longer made.

The city had put a time clause into its contracts and there was need of haste. The Irish day-laborers of that time were afraid of the ''devils'' in the wires, and it was essential that persons who knew the importance of substantial connections of the tubes should supervise the junction boxes installed between every pipe length. At one time, it became necessary for Edison, Kruesi, and Batchelor to get into and out of the trenches, even at night, and see to it that things were right. One night this carried on longer than anticipated and they were so tired that they decided to spend the rest of the night in a vacant store, where some of the tubes were stored. There was room on the floor for one, on a work-bench for another. They drew lots and Edison drew third, so he lay down on the tubes. He had on a very light-colored suit. In the morning, this was marked with tar streaks from shoulders to feet, for the warmth of his body had softened the tar!

In 1886, as is well known, there was a series of great labor strikes which marked a new consciousness of power by labor through organization. A shut-down at the Edison Machine Works might well ruin the new enterprise.

The men told Superintendent Kruesi, though they asked for a raise of 50 cents a day, they had no grievance. Kruesi asked Edison what to do, and was told: ''We can handle our own troubles—let's move away from others.'' So Mr. Kruesi went on the road to see the places offered by various chambers of commerce. The McQueen boys had fallen out with the Ellis' of the locomotive works in Schenectady; they had built two new buildings at the other end of the town. Then peace came. These buildings were new, big enough, and ready for occupancy. Kruesi recommended that they be purchased.

The works, and all the men who wished to follow, were moved to Schenectady in 1887. The company thrived, and many new buildings were built under the direct supervision of John Kruesi, who now was general manager and chief mechanical engineer. There were 200 employees in 1886, and 4,000 in 1892.

By 1895, through growth and consolidation with the Thomson-Houston Electric Company, Mr. Kruesi's combined responsibilities had grown in proportion, and, as the burdens became too heavy, he was relieved of the general managership. The men loved him; they called him ''Honest John.'' The strike of 1886 was the only one he ever had to deal with.

When another wave of depression followed some tariff changes, and there was a cessation of electrical development, the works were shut down. However, Mr. Kruesi kept them going two or three days a week, by putting men with families on alternate shifts, thus earning their gratitude and, at the same time, holding the most skilled workers of the force together. In those days, he went to the postoffice at four o'clock in the morning to see if any ''work'' had come in the mail which would warrant pulling the whistle cord. Mr. Edison once said:

> Kruesi was very exact in his expressions. At the time we were promoting and putting up electric light stations in Pennsylvania, New York, and New England, there would be delegations of people who proposed to pay for these stations. They would come to our office, 65 Fifth Avenue, to talk over the specifications, the cost, and other things. At first, Mr. Kruesi was brought in; but whenever a statement was made which he could not understand or did not believe could be substantiated, he would blurt right out among these prospects that he didn't believe it. Finally, it disturbed these committees so much, and raised so many doubts in their minds, that one of my chief associates said: ''Here, Kruesi, we don't want you to come to these meetings any longer; you are too painfully honest.'' I said to him: ''We always tell the truth; it may be deferred truth; but it is the truth.'' He could not understand that.

Mr. Kruesi was consulted by the cities of Boston and Baltimore on their subways, which preceded those of New York.

John Kruesi married Emily Zwinger, daughter of Dr. J. August Zwinger, of Allegheny, Pennsylvania. Mrs. Kruesi's parents also were Swiss, from the Canton of Thurgau.

Mrs. Kruesi died early in 1897 after a lingering illness. His intimates always said that he never got over it. He grieved for her. He felt the breakup of his family of eight children; for he had sent his son August to London as soon as he graduated from college, to get his first experience there; and Paul had gone to Chicago to work with another old associate of his father, Mr. Insull of the Commonwealth Edison Company.

John Kruesi died on February 22, 1899, a few days after returning from a trying trip to New Orleans.

W. K.

An Appreciation By Thomas A. Edison

ORANGE, N. J.
November 1, 1928.

Mr. Albert Bartholdi,
272 Bloomfield Avenue,
Passaic, N. J.

Dear Sir:

It is pleasant to learn from your recent letter that it is intended to perpetuate the memory of the late John Kruesi by a biography for which you are collecting material.

It seems to me that such a work would be gratifying and acceptable to Mr. Kruesi's old friends, of whom I am glad to count myself as one. He entered my employ about 1871, when I had a laboratory and manufacturing plant in Newark, New Jersey, and continued with me many years.

He was a skillful mechanician and rendered valuable assistance to me in the working out of the various devices in which I was interested at the time. One of the notable devices that he constructed from my sketches was the original model of the phonograph which worked perfectly the first time it was tried.

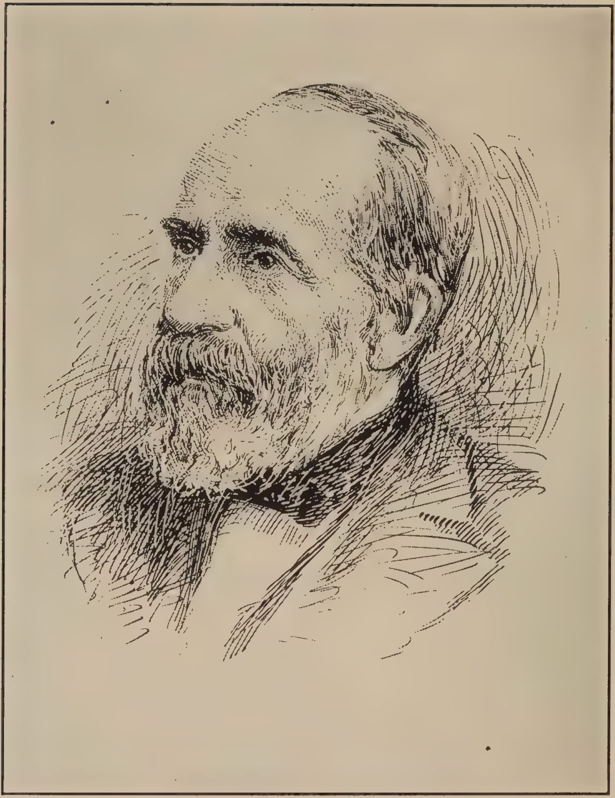
My memory of my old friend, John Kruesi, is a very pleasant one. He was an active, intelligent and industrious worker and a man of sterling character and high integrity. I rejoice in the fact that he was a faithful associate and co-laborer with me for many years.

I am sending to you for your information an extract from a book by the late T. Commerford Martin, entitled "The Story of Electricity." Possibly you may have already seen this. If so, no harm will be done by sending you the enclosure.

Yours very truly,
Thos. A. Edison.

Source of Information:

Biographical Sketch, prepared in 1929 for the Swiss-American Historical Society by Walter Kruesi, third son of the late John Kruesi.



LEO LESQUEREUX

LEO LESQUEREUX

Paleobotanist

Born November 18, 1806, at Fleurier, Canton of Neuchâtel, Switzerland.

Died October 25, 1889, in Columbus, Ohio.

THE subject of this sketch came from Fleurier, Canton of Neuchâtel, where his father owned and operated a small watch-spring factory. When a mere child, Leo evinced a predilection for the study of plants and flowers. His mother had her mind set on his taking up the study of theology and becoming a clergyman. After graduating from the public school of his birthplace, he was sent to the Académie de Neuchâtel. His father paid for his board and lodging, but Leo was required to earn his college tuition fees and his personal expenses by private teaching.

After his graduation from the Academy, he went to Eisenach, Germany, for the purpose of becoming more proficient in the German language, and to take up studies at a university. In order to procure funds for this program he became a tutor in a noble family with the privilege of giving a limited number of lessons to other families. Among these was the family of General von Wolffskel, a distinguished officer at the court of the Duke of Saxe-Weimar.

Lesquereux's pupil there was the beautiful and highly intellectual daughter of the General, the Baroness Sophia, who made extraordinary progress in learning to speak the French language. Before the end of the year, a romance had developed between teacher and pupil, and young Lesquereux, inspired with sufficient courage, asked the hand of the daughter in marriage. Fortunately, the head of the family took a kindly view of this bold request and, after a thorough investigation of this aspirant's intellectual and ethical resources (he possessed no other), the Duke consented that he might return and claim his bride when he secured a sufficient income to support a family.

Soon after, Lesquereux received an appointment as principal of a college at La Chaux de Fonds, in Switzerland, which promised an annual income, and so at the age of twenty-five, was united in marriage with the daughter of General von Wolffskel. Leo Lesquereux's "best man" at the wedding was a young lieutenant named von Moltke, who later became the famous field-marshal and commander-in-chief of the German armies in the Franco-Prussian war of 1870-71. The Baroness, just prior to becoming Madam Lesquereux, acted as bridesmaid to Augusta of Saxe-Weimar, when she married Prince William of Prussia, later Emperor William I of Germany.

Lesquereux was to enjoy but two years of unmarred happiness, as his sense of hearing became impaired, due to a fall in his early life. Despite treatments administered by eminent physicians, the ailment increased until he was totally deaf, ending his career as a professor, to which both he and his wife had looked forward with so much delight and security.

Lesquereux now was compelled to relinquish his position at the college and find other means of subsistence. In the ensuing years, he was employed in his father's factory, but manual labor became distasteful to him and in his leisure hours he devoted much time to the study of botany. Before long, however, his genius asserted itself and he soon found his destined place in the world. Among the forms of vegetation which had especially attracted his attention during his week-end excursions into the country, were the peat bogs, in which the government then was taking great interest as a source of fuel.

A prize was offered for the best essay on the formation of peat, its preservation and exploitation. Lesquereux won the prize on his thesis "Recherches sur les tourbieres du Jura." Through its publication he attracted the attention of the scientific and political world. He received an offer from the Prussian Government to undertake a tour of exploration through Germany, dealing with the investigation of peat bogs. Later he also traveled through Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Belgium, and France on similar missions.

His native Canton of Neuchâtel, through inherited dynastic rights, was at that time under the protectorate of the Prussian Crown, and, since 1815, also a member of the Swiss Confederation. This dual status caused much dissatisfaction and led to the formation of the Republican and the Royalist parties. In 1848, when the Liberal or Swiss Party became master of the situation in Neuchâtel, all those who held government positions under the Royalist régime were discharged.

Louis Agassiz, who already had emigrated to America, encouraged several of his friends and colleagues, among them Guyot, Matile, and Lesquereux, to join him in the New World. As the future prospects of subsistence were gloomy, Lesquereux accepted the invitation and in 1848, embarked for America as a steerage passenger with his wife and five children. He then was forty years of age, and totally deaf. The first work he performed in the United States was for his friend and countryman, Louis Agassiz, which consisted in preparing for publication the collection of plants made by Agassiz on his Lake Superior expedition. At the close of that year, he removed to Columbus, Ohio, where William S. Sullivant, a wealthy citizen, employed him as a natural scientist, and here he made his home for the remainder of his life. Sullivant and Lesquereux jointly published the volumes of the *Musci Exsiccati Americani* (1856 and 1865). After Sullivant's death, his extensive collections were incorporated with those of the Harvard College Herbarium, and Lesquereux was engaged to complete the description and classification. In this connection, he made microscopical examinations that never before had been attempted. His failing health, however, interrupted his literary work, and it was not until 1884 that his most ambitious effort appeared: *Manual of the Mosses of North America.*

The results of Lesquereux's paleobotanical labors were so extensive and their scientific value so well appreciated and known to students of the special branch of science, that no elaboration is necessary in this sketch. His first volume was published in 1854, and after that and until his death in 1889, many additional volumes appeared, all testifying to his devotion in his chosen field of scientific research, to his keen discrimination and perseverance.

Honors came to him from various institutions of learning, and in the election to membership in a score of scientific societies in Europe and America. He was the first to be chosen for membership in our own National Academy soon after its organization in 1863.

His ever loyal wife, who, for his sake, had given up social rank and splendor, was his devoted companion throughout a life filled with hardships and disappointments.

As a pioneer in the field of vegetable paleontology in America, Lesquereux was in the front ranks. He made particular and extensive investigations of the coal formations of the United States, especially of the Pennsylvania coal flora, and, as a consequence, became the foremost American authority on fossil botany of his time. He wrote more than fifty monographs on scientific subjects. His main works are: *Musci Exsiccati Americani* (1856), of which a second edition was printed in 1865; *Icones Muscarum* (1864); *Manual of the Mosses of North America* (1884), and three volumes on *The Coal Flora of the Pennsylvania Geological Survey,* considered one of the chief American treatises on carboniferous plants.

While physically afflicted, he was a singularly pure and noble character, and America possessed in Lesquereux not only a distinguished scientist, but also an example of a good man and citizen.

A. Ba.

Sources of Information:

Monograph 17, United States Geological Survey (1892).
Proceedings of the Ohio Academy of Science, vol. vi, Part 4, "Some Pioneers of Science in Ohio," by T. C. Mendenhall, Nov. 27, 1914.

JOHN ULRIC NEF

Teacher of Chemistry and Head of Chemistry Department, University of Chicago

Born June 14, 1862, at Herisau, Switzerland.
Died August 13, 1915, at Carmel-by-the-Sea, Calif.

THE father of the subject of this sketch, who also was named John Ulric, and who married Anna Catherine Mock, was the superintendent of a textile factory and appears to have been of an admirable type: a man who believed in hard work; who was ambitious for himself and his family; who possessed imagination, together with something of an adventurous spirit and great courage of conviction; who believed in sport, as well as in work; and who was aware that relaxation and rest often come to a tired mind and body through art, music, and literature. These certainly are admirable qualities, and when it is realized that the father who possessed these qualities was, in addition, a man of an uncommonly lovable nature, and that the son was a boy of very sensitive and delicate perception, Nef's personality may readily be appreciated and understood.

The family came to America in 1866 and settled on a small farm near the town of Housatonic, Massachusetts, where Nef's father found employment in a textile factory, later becoming superintendent, or foreman. Nef spent his boyhood on this farm, attending the local school. He was encouraged to play strenuously, as well as to work hard, and to read good books. His father taught him to play the organ.

Without doubt, it was during this period that Nef acquired his lifelong belief in the balance between strenuous mental effort and equally strenuous physical exercise as the foundation of well-rounded life. For years his program consisted in three-quarters of hard work followed by a summer vacation of equally hard exercise, usually mountain climbing in the Alps.

When Nef was sixteen, he selected Harvard as his college and was sent to a preparatory school in New York City to fill in the discrepancies in his education. He entered Harvard with the class of 1884. In spite of the intelligent atmosphere of his home, Nef, on entering Harvard, was still a rather raw country boy. He determined to study medicine, as this field seemed to him to offer the best opportunity to be of service to mankind. As a freshman, his performance was not much above the average and, strangely enough, it was German, the language of his home, and the language he used in most of his later publications, that gave him trouble.

From the very outset, however, he led his class in chemistry, and it was not long before he changed his mind about his lifework and decided to specialize in chemistry, believing that in view of the very great attraction that chemistry held for him from the very first, he could accomplish more by applying himself to the problems of that particular science than by becoming a physician. While at Harvard, he made many friends among the students and faculty members. The latter naturally were attracted by a student of such outstanding ability and his decision to go into scientific research undoubtedly was due in part to his contacts with the faculty members. His progress at college was remarkable and, in his senior year, he led his class.

His extraordinary record at Harvard obtained for him the Kirkland fellowship, 1884-87. Such traveling fellowships, which carried enough financial help to free the holder of all financial worry, were rare in Nef's student days, and the bestowing of this reward upon Nef probably is the best proof that his record in college really was phenomenal. He decided to study with Baeyer at Munich, Germany, and there he threw himself into his work with characteristic singleness of purpose, receiving his Ph.D. at the University of Munich in 1886. While there, he did not, however, neglect his opportunities in the matter of German culture, but during those three years acquired a deep appreciation for German civilization. His scientific career at Munich was a repetition of that at Harvard. Again he demonstrated that his intellect was of a most unusual type and astonished his professors by his performances. Willstätter himself is authority for the statement that Baeyer once told him that of all the students he had had in his long career at Munich, Nef was the most brilliant.

After returning to America, Nef found his first position at Purdue University in 1887 as professor of chemistry and director of the chemical laboratory, but left in 1889 to join the faculty of Clark University, Worcester, Massachusetts, where he remained until 1896, when he went to Chicago University as the first head of its chemistry department and which position he held until his death in August, 1915. Nef did his best work at the University of Chicago, and trained a long line of students who, almost without exception, carried on his ideas and methods of work. This leads to the consideration of Nef as a teacher.

What constitutes a good teacher? Probably no two persons would agree on the adequacy of any single definition. Nevertheless, there are elements that all will recognize as being essential to a good teacher. He must have, for instance, a profound grasp of his subject. Anyone who has tried to follow Nef as he was drawn from one field of chemistry to another in the marshaling of data, will agree that he was a master of the facts of organic chemistry.

A good teacher must be logical in his presentation of material. If some of his students entertained doubts on this point after leaving Nef's lecture room, and as the result of a particularly rapid and fiery barrage of the subject matter, they only had to look over their complete notes for a quarter to see that there was beautiful order in his presentation.

A good teacher must be able to awaken and hold the interest of his students. There are various ways of doing this; some involving a definite and preconceived plan on the part of the teacher to attain this end. Nef made no definite plan to arouse interest. Indeed, it is known from his conversations with certain of his students that he was very much afraid of arousing interest in young minds not intended by nature for creative careers in chemistry. Nevertheless, he did arouse and maintain interest in his lectures; and it was by his enthusiastic and obviously whole-hearted devotion to chemistry that he did it. Of all of Nef's qualities as a teacher, this was the greatest.

The teaching of a scientific subject is not carried on entirely or even principally in the classroom, but rather in the laboratory work room. And Nef was a successful teacher in the laboratory. Perhaps it is not very wide of the mark to say that he taught in the laboratory chiefly by example. He was the living embodiment of the ideal research worker. He made himself master of the facts, worked with the most scrupulous attention to technique and was positively unhappy in the presence of improper manipulation and method; worked with the utmost intensity and persistence; and was rewarded with an intense pleasure in those moments of success which were certain to follow such effort. Regardless of individual definitions of a great teacher, we recognize in a man like this a very rare and altogether admirable type.

Although this is not the proper place for a detailed discussion of Nef's contributions to organic chemistry, no consideration of Nef could possibly present a fair picture of the man if it did not give the reader some idea of the nature of his scientific interests.

Nef's scientific career is best understood if it is kept in mind that he was active in that transition period during which interest was shifting from the older synthetic chemistry—which dealt largely with the structure of organic compounds—to the methods and conceptions of the newer physical chemistry in which the discovery of the mechanism or course of reactions was the goal of the experimenter. For the purpose of this article, Nef's scientific career may be considered to have been made up of three phases:

His early contributions clearly show the influence of his teacher, Baeyer. Nef had a profound admiration for Baeyer, and it was only natural that he should wish, after returning to America, to solve problems in the field of Baeyer's immediate interest. This, as has been indicated above, was the field concerned mostly with the structure of compounds. It is not surprising then to find that one of Nef's earliest contributions was the establishment of the structure of quinone. This contribution is considered by many to be his greatest achievement, not only because it settled a very acute individual problem, but because it gave the chemist a new type of structure which has found application in many fields of organic chemistry. Other structural studies carried out by Nef during this phase of his work were those on aceto acetic ester and on the nitro-paraffins.

The substance of formula CH_2 is called methylene. Nef tried for years to isolate methylene, but due to its extreme reactivity he did not succeed. Nevertheless, the conception involved in Nef's ''Methylene Chemistry'' has had a tremendous effect on organic theory because of its success in interpreting an extremely wide range of organic reactions.

The third phase of Nef's labors began when he took up his work on the carbohydrates. This phase does not fundamentally differ from the second phase, because he is still concerned with the mechanism of organic reactions. But he now has dealt with more complicated molecules; the technique involved was entirely different, and this work is not closely related to that of the second phase. Nef devoted the last ten or fifteen years of his life to this study of carbohydrates. The experimental difficulties that he overcame here would early have discouraged a less ardent spirit, but, in the case of Nef, the only effect of each new difficulty was to spur him on to renewed effort. No idea of failure in experiment seemed to enter his mind: the only questions were as to the time and by what course of experimentation success would come. The unsparing energy with which he threw himself into this work undoubtedly contributed to his early death.

Nef was a very effective teacher and his original contributions to organic chemistry were of the highest quality. His service to mankind, however, is not restricted to these two fields. He was something more than a teacher of chemistry to his students, but this something is not easy to pin down with words. A little of it is sensed in a quotation from a letter recently written by a man who came under his influence as a teacher:

> I can epitomize the outstanding feature of Professor Nef's teaching by quoting a cryptic expression which he used in teaching me, "The right way to do a thing is always best in the long run no matter how long it takes." How fundamental to success is this epigram! It implies that if you lack the tools of your profession you can never succeed. It involves the idea of a critical skepticism combined with open-mindedness and the willingness to experiment. At whatever cost of effort and time the ability to excel demands patient preparation. You must either prove the master of circumstances or admit mediocrity.

Nef was a member of the National Academy of Sciences; the Royal Society of Sciences, Upsala, Sweden; a fellow of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, and the American Association for the Advancement of Science.

He married Louise Bates Comstock of Rochester, New York, May 17, 1898; she died March 20, 1909.

He gave his students a sound and practical philosophy of life.

J. W. E. G.

Source of Information:

Personal acquaintance of the author with the subject.

CARL GUTHERZ

Artist

**Born January 28, 1844, in Schöftland, Canton Aargau, Switzerland.
Died February 7, 1907, in Washington, D. C.**

THERE are not a few artists—painters, sculptors and musicians—of Swiss extraction now living in the United States, who have made a name for themselves. In the nineteenth century, however, the number was very small, among them being the painters, Adolph Felix Muller-Uri, now residing in Pasadena, August Benziger, now in Brunnen, Switzerland, and Carl Gutherz, the subject of this sketch.

He was born in the village of Schöftland, Canton Aargau, the son of Heinrich and Henriette (Luescher) Gutherz. His father was a school teacher, and in 1851, when Carl was seven years old, the Gutherz family emigrated to America, first settling in Cincinnati, where the elder Gutherz established a terra cotta works on a small scale. Here Gutherz soon learned to model in clay. Terra cotta ornaments in those days were not much in vogue, and after struggling for several years the venture failed, and the Gutherz family moved to Memphis, Tenn. The father died there in the prime of his life, and Carl found employment as a mechanical draftsman. But he yearned to become a real artist, and after taking a few lessons in painting, became skilled in portrait painting.

He had saved up some money, and with that and financial assistance from his family he went to Paris to study under Cabasson, Pils, Lefebvre, and others, then in the limelight as renowned artists. During the Franco-Prussian war he was in Brussels and Antwerp, continuing his art work under Staellart and Robert. In 1871 he resided in Rome, where he painted and exhibited his first noteworthy picture, ''Awakening of Spring,'' which received a reward at the Philadelphia Centennial, 1876, and Paris, 1889. Leaving Rome for Munich for a short time, he returned to Memphis in 1872. Two years later he settled in St. Louis and taught drawing at Washington University. Here he assisted Halsey C. Ives in the development of an art department, later to become the St. Louis School of Fine Arts.

Another period spent in Paris, the years 1884-1896 were the most productive and successful of his career. He was especially influenced by the murals of Puvis de Chavannes and began to work in that branch of art. During this period he produced "Lux Incarnationis," "Arcessita ad Angelis," "The Sixth Day of Creation," "Temptation of St. Anthony" and "Ad Astra."

Many of the pictures exhibited during this period were of a religious-mystical order in the style of the Pre-Raphaelite school. His murals attracted attention in America, whither he returned in 1896, and here he received the commission to design the ceiling of the House Reading Room in the Library of Congress. The legend of the fresco was "The Spectrum of Light." It comprised seven panels, each in one of the colors of the rainbow, and representing some phase of achievement, with a central figure illuminating the allegory. After that he executed another important piece of mural art, "Law and Justice," in the court house of Fort Wayne, Ind., and a pictorial delineation of the development of Unitarian theology, in the People's Church of St. Paul, Minn.

He did portraits of General Robert Lee, Senators Morgan, of Alabama, and Bate of Tennessee, Justice Bradley, Jefferson Davis and Susan B. Anthony. However, as a portraitist he was only moderately successful.

Richard Muther, the German art critic, said of his work in Paris: "Bouguereau's Neo-Classicism, highly perfumed and with a tendency to be feebly fanciful, had its satellite in Carl Gutherz, a Swiss by birth."

Gutherz was a member of the National Jury of the Chicago World's Fair of 1893, and a member of the Advisory Commission and National Jury of the St. Louis Exposition in 1904. In 1879 he married Katherine Scruggs, the daughter of a Methodist minister of Alabama. He died in Washington, D. C., February 7, 1907.

A. R.

Source of Information:

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